



Comparative Studies in Adult Education



T. S. Sodhi
N. S. Multani

THE BOOK

It covers comparatively a new area of Adult Education which is fast coming up as an independent discipline, in developing nations of the world. It is interesting to know the importance of Adult Education but it is amusing to study it in Comparative perspective.

In the work an attempt has been made to look into the Adult Education programme of some advanced i.e. U.S.A., U.K., and U.S.S.R., China as well as some developing nations i.e. Kenya and India. In addition an effort has been made to study the programmes Denmark and China, which have made significant contribution in the area.

This specialisation, as an elective subject has been introduced in many universities in India. In addition, it is being taught as a special subject in many universities in India and abroad. It is but natural that the book will be useful for M.A. (Education), M.Ed. and M.Phil students as well as to these teachers who have a thirst for knowledge.

It is hoped that those who spare some time to have a look into the pages of this book will find it interesting from the point of view of academics, examination and research.

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**COMPARATIVE STUDIES
IN
ADULT EDUCATION**

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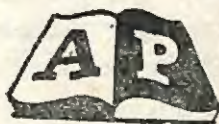
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or even somewhat different. Such system can be put on identical frame of reference and compared. However, such a frame of reference may not be possible to be tailored for the patterns of adult education in different countries because the people differ on the definition of adults, adult education, age of adults, format of adult education, un-educated adult and his educational needs. Adult education is not hierarchical, routinized, systematic or organised like the formal system. For some people an uneducated adult may mean just an illiterate. While for others it may be linked with the acquiring of different skills and abilities or on the job training. This may to a considerable extent, be linked with the level of development of a nation. However, the importance of adult education programme cannot be overemphasised in the modern concept of life-long education. It is to prepare one for longitudinal and latitudinal development. In some underdeveloped countries one may end up with one occupation throughout his life. Where as in the advanced countries, one may go in for the change of many occupations in his working career. Adult education is to look after the needs of the types of the people respectively in the under developed or an advanced nations. However, in developing nations one can find pockets where the needs of adult may be identical with those of the adults of underdeveloped nations and also pockets wherein the needs of adults can be like those of the adults of the advanced countries. That is why it becomes difficult to study comparative adult education programme of different countries. However, it is possible to carry on some comparative study in adult education of different countries as has been done in the present publication.

I have been impressed by the way in which the authors of the present work have built up the theme of the book and also presented the programme of adult education

in some advanced, developing and under developed countries. I have little doubt that the work will prove useful not only for teachers and scholars of comparative education but also for those who deal with social sciences, educational planning and developmental studies, but for all those students who have their genuine interest in education and also for those who go in for their B.Ed; M.Ed; M.A. (Education); M.Phil or Ph.D degrees.

I am glad that Dr. T. S. Sodhi and N. S. Multani have become aware of the dearth of such text book and have worked on a comparatively difficult area of the discipline of comparative study in Adult Education. They have skillfully divided the treatment of the subject matter in two parts. In part *one*, they have dealt with the history and philosophy of adult education while in part *two* they have defined the adult education programme of U.S.A. U.S.S.R.; U.K.; China; Denmark; Kenya & India. The content has been systematically arranged and skillfully treated. I am sure that the work is bound to prove to be a valuable contribution to the fund of knowledge in the field of adult education in India and abroad. In my opinion, work is pregnant with export potential also. Let us hope that all those who read this excellent treatise will be impressed by the hard work and the scholarship of those who have built it up.

DR. C. L. KUNDU
Professor, Head & Dean
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Kurukshetra University
KURUKSHETRA

in some advanced developing and under developed countries. It is felt that the work will have great not only for teachers and students of comparative education but also for those who deal with social sciences educational planning and development. It is felt that all those students who have the general interest in education will also be those who will find this book of interest.

I am glad that Dr. Y. G. Saha and Dr. S. K. Ghosh have become aware of the dearth of such literature and have worked on a cooperative effort to draw the attention of comparative study in adult education. They have skillfully divided the treatment of the subject matter in two parts. In part one, they have dealt with the history and philosophy of adult education while in part two they have delineated the adult education programs of U.S.A., U.S.S.R., U.K., China, Germany, Sweden and a number of countries. I am sure that the work is bound to attract a valuable attention to the field of adult education. The field of adult education is both wide and deep. In my opinion work is required which is not only theoretical but also practical. It is felt that all those who read this excellent book will be inspired by the hard work and the scholarship of those who have done it.

DR. C. C. KAPOOR
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It can profitably be done through the discipline of comparative studies in adult education as no pattern can be evolved in which comparative adult education can be studied. It may not be possible for developing countries to follow the models of adult education of developed and advanced countries in the world. However, it can help them to develop a type of system which will probably help in the development of their adult education programmes. The type of adult education programme is positively correlated with the stages of the economic development of different countries. So, their study can help a lot in finding and executing the adult education programmes of their own country. Hence, their comparative studies are studied and looked into from comparative perspective.

In the first part of the book, the need for such type of literature in the world of our work have tried to put the matter in a different perspective. The work has been divided into two parts. The first part contains the history and development of comparative studies in adult education. An attempt is made to classify different concepts and theories in the field. In the second part, the adult education programmes of seven countries have been

Preface

If you educate a child, you educate an individual. If you educate an adult, you educate a family. The best remedy to spread education is either to put more emphasis upon adult education programmes or to emphasize equally on adult education and education of the younger generation. Almost all the developing nations are unfortunately entrapped in a vicious circle in which adult education does not get the type of the care, which is needed to be given to it. They can be helped to a greater extent if they get the knowledge of the adult education programme of different

of Education, Harvard Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts, U.S.A. and Dr. C. J. K. ...
... the encouragement, help, guidance, and advice of
... motivation they provided in the execution of the project
of writing this book. Last things are also to all those
authors whose works have been checked and reported
to authors who had helped in the writing of this book
such personalities as so many that it may not be possible
to name them individually. The authors are
grateful to all of them.

The straightforward style in English and the style in
the book ...
Graduate classes of education, psychology and ...
Indian Universities and also to those who are interested in
research in the area of ...
that for the first time ...
Gates and other educational ...
... and study of it and favorable ...
... to the improvement of ...

D. T. S. ...
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COMPARATIVE STUDIES
IN
ADULT EDUCATION

Part-I

Philosophical & Historical Dimensions of Adult Education

- **Comparative Adult Education**
- **Comparative Studies in Adult Education**
- **Organisational Patterns**
- **Factors influencing Adult Education**



Comparative Adult Education

1.1 Understanding Comparative Education :

One who wants to make comparative studies in adult education, cannot land directly in its arena. First of all, he needs to understand as to what adult education is and also what comparative education is. When he understands these two steps, only then he can proceed further. Firstly, we will try to understand as to what comparative education is, knowing it so well that it is difficult to define at for all the persons of different cultures, societies, communities and spheres.

Once a writer wanted to define education and wrote a number of letters to different scholars to send its definition. He was able to collect some fifty definitions but none of these satisfied him. On the basis of these definitions, he tried to manipulate a very lengthy definition of his own, but that also had its Achilles heel and served only to confuse. Thus he spoke like Disraeli that he hated definitions. This is true of comparative education and comparative adult education also as different writers have given it different meanings.

Sir Michael Sadler, who was, perhaps, the first to attempt the definition of comparative education, viewed that :

"In studying foreign system of education we should not forget that the things outside the schools matter even more than things inside.... The practical value of studying in a right spirit and with scholarly accuracy the working of foreign system of education is that it will result in our being better fitted to study and understand our own".

The underlying spirit seems to be that of nationalism, which emphasises the value of better understanding of one's own educational system and problems, as educational system of any country is not detachable but was intricately connected with the society that supports it. The same is true of adult education also.

I. L. Kandel extended the ideas as Sadler when he wrote that in comparative education the emphasis should be not on the study of educational set, organisation, administration, methods, curriculum and teaching only, but also upon the causes behind educational problems of different countries and attempted solution in the light of their social, political, cultural and spiritual idealogies. He believed in the theory of causation and is called the father of comparative education. He writes :

"The chief value of comparative approach to such problems lies in an analysis of the causes which have produced them, in a comparison of the differences between various systems and the reason underlying them and finally in the study of solutions attempted. Hence, the comparative study of education must be founded on the analysis of the social and political ideals which the school reflects, for the school epitomizes these for transmission and for progress".

Nicholas Hans observes a common link in the customs, traditions, environmental and historical factors in different countries of the world. He holds that because of this similarity, it is possible to find the factors and traditions which are common. He writes :

"As their (nation's) national past was formed by factors often common to many nations and as their ideals of the future are the outcome of universal movements, the problems of education in different countries are similar and the principles which guide their solutions may be compared and even identified. The analytical study of these factors form a historical perspective and the comparison of attempted solution of resultant problems are the main purpose of comparative education".

Vernon Mallinson agrees with Hans and Kandel about comparative education except that he thinks that national and cultural differences give the ground for differences in educational systems. He writes :

"By expression 'comparative education' we mean a systematic examination of other cultures and other systems of education deriving from these cultures, in order to discover resemblances and differences, and why variant solutions have been attempted (and with what result) to problems that are often common to all".

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Bereday emphasise the importance of methodologies in comparative education, through which he deduces lessons for the variations in educational practices in different societies. He writes :

"Comparative education seeks to make sense out of the similarities and differences among educational systems. It catalogues educational methods across national frontiers and in this catalogue each country appears as one variant of the total store of mankind's educational experience. If well set-off, the like and contrasting colours of the world perspective will make each country a potential beneficiary of the lessons thus received".

Phillip E Jones is also one of those comparativists who gives importance to methodology in comparative education for educational planning. He says :

"Comparative education, with its rapidly increasing resources and its hope for better methods, seems admirably suited to provide a more rational basis for planning".

Edmund J. King is also of the view that comparative education is a discipline which systematizes our observations and conclusions in relation to the shaping of the future. He thinks that in this world now it is no longer possible to find out the solutions of any educational or social problems within that country and thus we are to look for it from other countries, cultures and societies, Comparative education serves this purpose, at least, in the world of education.

However, none of the definitions gives an insight in the final definition even when each one of these depicts a point of view which represents some truth.

1.2 Purposes in Comparative Education :

1. Intellectual : Comparative education like other

comparative studies, is an intellectual activity. Some people study foreign educational systems for enlightenment. According to Bereday :

“Just as it is travesty of informed living to use an automobile without knowing the principles on which it is based, it is a mockery of pedagogy to study child rearing practices without being aware of their endless variations not only in historical time but also in geographical perspective. Knowledge for its own sake is the sole ground upon which comparative education need to make a stand in order to merit inclusion among other academic fields”.

The knowledge thus derived contributes to the field of social sciences as well as pedagogy and thus renders a very valuable service to the development and knowledge and its application. The satisfaction of intellectual curiosity gives an insight which makes him understand himself in a better way when he can have the comparative view of self with foreign people. Self-knowledge born out of the awareness of others is the finest lesson the study of comparative system affords.

2. Planning : It is a well-known phenomenon that the problems of over-population, under-production, disease, economic non-viability, industrialisation and social ills can be tackled by planning. So in all the countries of the world, the methodology of planning is being adopted in the field of education, economic development, social reforms and other such activities. Some countries in the world are living in primitive agricultural societies. Some have crossed that state and are either on the way of industrialisation or have industrialised. There are others who are at the stage of automation. While some have crossed that stage and are now at the level of cybernation. All the nations are now planning to go ahead with their developmental activities. Planning requires are careful formulation of

objectives, establishment of priorities and the identification of the means to achieve these objectives. This can be done only on rational and scientific foundations, rather than on vague opinion. Education has a definite role to play in order to make such decision and bureaucratic and collective level, and also to cope with the needs of man-power. The acceptance of a particular educational policy is never to be undertaken lightly as the future of many millions of potential citizens depends upon making suitably good decision in this regard. So, very mature decisions need to be undertaken, which can easily be done on the basis of well-established criteria for which comparative education lends a helping hand. In the words of Jones.

“Comparative education with its rapidly increasing resources and its hope for better methods, seems admirably suitable to provide a more rational basis for planning.”

3. Practicability : We are living in practical age in which education is regarded as a consumer “good.” The pattern of education which loses its practability goes on being replaced by such patterns which have practical utility. In U.S.A., Latin Grammar Schools have been mostly replaced by comprehensive school on the principle of utility and practicability. In U. K., the old state-supported primary schools, which aimed at practical role of teaching the masses to read and write to enable them to earn a living in industrial society, have survived with countable modifications and improvements. It has been established that secondary education has cash value, and is, therefore, also an educational good. Some nations (USSR) believe that work-experience must be a part of education process at secondary level and have developed their economy considerably with this principle, whereas in some societies (U.K.), more emphasis is laid on socialiation. If such

problems, solutions, achievements and modifications have some utility or practicability, then these must be studied through comparative education.

4. Humanitarian View-Point : We are living in the world of rising population, increasing knowledge and exploding aspirations. In advanced countries like U.S.A. the demand for education has never been so great as it is now. The developing countries like India are aiming at the development of such an educational pattern that it might be possible at least to achieve 100% literacy in the minimum time period. The underdeveloped countries like Nigeria, Kenya and Uganda, are so planning that education should spread tremendously. On humanitarian grounds, these nations need to be assisted by the developed nations of the world so that their poor brethren can conquer hunger, disease, agricultural backwardness and lack of economic viability. All this will be possible when these countries, in addition to the national resources, technical skill and the geographical, social and cultural knowledge, also know the educational patterns of each other. It can be better be studied by the methods, techniques and wisdom of comparative education.

5. Educational Problems in World Perspective : Most of the nations in the world face identical problems in their educational systems. It can therefore be possible to deduce lessons from the achievements and mistakes of foreign schools and to use it in the improvement, reforming or reorientation of the educational system of one's own country. It is interesting to note how China did away with the habit of opium eating and how her educational system helped in it. In the same way, how is it that USSR claims of having eradicated illiteracy within ten years of their having taken steps in this regard and how is it that India having laid down in the Constitution to do so within ten years, has not been able to achieve this target even in forty

years. It is interesting to know that in Great Britain, religious education is regarded as one of the essential features of education and is not creating disharmony while in U.S.A., it is not allowed to be taught in schools run out of taxes. What methodologies are being used by USSR to control unemployment problem and to keep a balance in manpower planning and development of educational system? King has laid emphasis on practical aspect of comparative education in helping the educational decisions for development. The coming time is likely to be one of accelerated change and very deeper interaction. Now education is not simple teaching and learning but is the outcome of full social and political involvement. The process is so complicated that educational decisions at once bring in to play a chain reaction of consequences in the social economic and political field. Now comparative education is to take in to account a new awareness, a new responsibility and a new strategy. In the present era the purpose of comparative studies is to have a better understanding of changed circumstances and also to have a better equipment to fulfil the new responsibilities.

6. Innovations : Now a days, in the field of education, so many innovations are being introduced. The technology of teaching, programmed learning, use of mass-media, open university, teaching through correspondence, television and radio, pre-school education, work experience etc. would have been localised if education in comparative context had not been seen. So much work on theories of teaching and learning, class-room interaction, teacher-taught interaction and methodologies and techniques involved in the improvement of teacher behaviour is being done in the field of education in United States of America. If other under-developed and semi-developed countries do not keep them abreast, [their educational system will soon become out-dated. It is always better to get benefits from the experience and experimentation being done elsewhere

rather than having fresh and firsthand experience by trial and error methods.

7. Economics of Education : Only recently a few dimensions have been added to education and it has begun to be realised that spreading of education is positively co-related with increasing productivity. USSR improved her economy by taking first step to eradicate illiteracy. Similarly, all developed nations have been developing by investing more in education. So much so that some nations of the world are investing as much as 12% of their budget on their education. There are some other nations like India, wherein the spread of education especially at the higher level, in place of giving impetus to the economy, has rather created another problem of educated unemployment. Yet the paradox is that inspite of all this, new colleges at the rate of one college per working day, i.e. 200 colleges a year, are coming up. It is also interesting to know that problem of educated unemployment is as great in developed nations like U.S.A. and Britain as in India, and even then these governments are planning ahead the spread of higher education. Another phenomenon to study is that on one hand USSR believes that economic development is fundamentally based upon the spread of education. On the other hand it has created problem of unemployment for other nations and yet there is an explosion of education, throughtout the world. To understand that this paradoxical problem is cropping-up differently with different nations the world, we will have to study the development of education and the factors influencing the educational sphere in different countries. This is the sphere of comparative education.

The same is true of brain drain. It is unfortunate that brain being highly developed at a very high cost by the under-developed or developing nations ultimately shifts to

developed nations. The result is that while poor countries spend rich countries get benefits out of that. How to minimise it, is the fundamental problem of education, which can better be understood through the media of comparative education.

What are the factors responsible for the success of USSR and China and failure of India and Kenya in the eradication of illiteracy in their lands can better understood with the help of the discipline of comparative education. It is why that Kandel has said. "....the purpose of comparative education, as of comparative law, comparative literature or comparative anatomy, is to discover the difference in the forces and courses that produce difference in educational systems". The fact is that the national systems of education are just like national experimental laboratories dealing with similar problems. The solution of these problems lies in different nations in the cultural conditions, their political and social aims and economic forces rather than in educational theories. So, for the solution of these problems it becomes necessary to understand these traditions, forces and objectives that work behind the educational scene.

8. Education for International Understanding :
Even when the idea of one world was conceived by philosophers like Pierre Dubis some more than six centuries ago, the main force which strengthened the sociology of international understanding was the destruction carried out by the last two world wars. It was why that United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) has laid down that since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that defences of peace must be constructed. League of Nations (1921), Commissioner of Intellectual Cooperation, (1926) International Bureau of Education (1925), and ultimately United Nations Organisation (UNO) were the outcomes.

Now for world problems of labour and education, International Labour Organisation (ILO) and United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), have been established. It has started functioning more effectively since 1954, when USSR which has earlier disassociated herself, joined the other nations. The declaration of Human Rights, has a greater appeal for small nations of the world and programmes like Point Four Plan and foreign-aid-programmes of USA and the British Commonwealth's Colombo Plan, have very great impact on international co-operation and understanding. According to Russell, education is one of the major forces through which it is possible to develop the feelings of internationalism. For this purpose, to understand the other nations of the world, their philosophies of life, education, culture and sociology, to understand the forces geographical, cultural, local and religious influencing their way of life, to know more about their customs, traditions and cultures, is absolutely essential. All these factors are important constituents affecting the educational development of other countries and need to be studied and understood for clear concepts of internationalism.

It is under the influence of better climate for international understanding that programmes such as Fundamental Education, World Education, World Family Planning, World Health Organisation and World Rationing are being thought of. The success of these programmes will lie in the development of education throughout the world and the study of comparative systems of education. It is, perhaps, due to this fact that thousands of students, teachers and other social and technical workers are being exchanged between different countries. Now the courses of study are also being planned in such a way that the life of people in different environments is sympathetically understood.

1.3 Goals of Comparative Education

In the early stages of work in comparative adult education the goals stated were vague and ambiguous. It is due to differences in the concepts and functions of education that in place of comparative adult education, the term comparative studies in adult education was considered more appropriate.

It soon became clear that much of the difficulty encountered in the larger field of comparative education arose out of disagreement about, or lack of specificity about goals. In early years, the stated objective for comparative education was to obtain some lessons from foreign process. It was reversed as western educationists began to "export" their educational systems and institutions to other countries, and comparative education was harnessed to this process. Neither of these goals would now be acceptable. But there has been little agreement about alternatives and, far too often, comparative education has become identified with "international education" or falls into an imprecise and rather romantic form of "cross-cultural" exchanges. While confusion about goals remained, attention of many comparison educationists focussed on methods—even to "search for a method" and the disagreements and debates "hotted-up." It is a truism that methods and techniques must be related to goals; it naturally follows that each goal may require an explicit combination of methods and techniques of comparing.

When specific goals are examined it becomes clear that methods and modes of comparing must be many. Agreement about goals and refinement of modes are both required: these are tasks of high priority. If they are performed well, comparative studies in adult education may make a major contribution to the entire field of education.

1.4 Adult Education

It is a package of educational programme for adults, outside the formal educational system, aiming at providing more non-formal, information and better knowledge and skill for improving their life style and also their earning capacity. One of the objectives of adult education is to enable people to become confident and self-reliant by understanding the situation in which they live and solve their problems. Its purpose is to educate him for life so that he can efficiently play his various roles as a member of the society. It is thus an instrument of development, progress and also social change.

In many societies where the masses are illiterate the aim of adult education is thought of as the removal of illiteracy. It is still more needed, in advanced countries, as one is to keep himself abreast with the knowledge of social set up and also his world of work. It is why that in U.K., it is termed as 'further education.' This point of view is now appreciated throughout the world and it is well realised that education is a life-long process. However, the meanings of adult education, as conceived by different countries, differ a lot. In India, adult education is handled at two levels i.e. literacy and further education. Even for making literacy programme a success, it is to be related with the living conditions of the learner, so as to assert him to active participant in the development of his society. The motivation of participants depends upon their awareness that they can transform their density and that the adult education programme will lead to advancement of their functional capacities for the realisation of their objectives. Thus the essential component of this type of adult education programme is social awareness, functional development and imparting of literacy skill. In India, this programme is confined to the age group of 15-35 years.

For understanding the concept of further education, it is essential to understand that in the age of the explosion of knowledge, social change and technological revolution, mere literacy will not do and nor will it help to achieve the objectives of adult education programme. Thus it is a life-long process in which different programmes are organised from the point of not only social awareness, utilisation of leisure time, updating the skill and knowledge and also for functional up-to-dating and development.

In 1966, International Conference on comparative study of adult education, defined adult education as :

“Adult education is a process whereby persons who no longer attend school on regular and full time basis (unless full time programmes are especially designed by adults), undertake sequential and organised activities with the conscious intention of bringing about change in information and attitudes : or for the purpose of identifying or solving personal and community problems.”

Such a type of adult education will include five categories which were used at the Conference :

1. **Remedial Education** : Fundamental and literacy education. It is a prerequisite for all other kinds of adult education.
2. **Education for Vocational, Technical and Professional Competence** : This may either be to prepare an adult for a job, for a new job, or continuing or further education for an adult to keep him up-to-date on new developments in his occupation or profession.
3. **Education for Health and Nutrition, Welfare and Family Living** : It includes health, family, consumer, planned-parenthood, hygiene, family relations child-care etc.
4. **Education for Civic, Political and Community**

Competence : It includes all kinds of educational programmes about government, community development, public and international affairs, voting and political education etc.)

Education for Self-Fulfilment : It includes all kinds of liberal education programmes, education in music, the arts, dance, theatre, literature, arts and crafts, whether brief or long-term. All programmes which are aimed primarily at learning for the sake of personal satisfaction and liberation rather than to achieve the other, society-oriented aims included in the above four categories.

'Adult Education' is used as being equivalent in the widest sense to the education of adults. 'Adults' are taken as being individuals who are generally regarded in their own culture as having assumed most of the responsibilities, interests and rights (social or legal) of adult citizens. In some cultures age level is fixed i. e. in India it is 15-35 years of age. A brief definition might be that adult education is any organized provision intended to help adult to learn whatever they may wish to learn' (the voluntary choice of the adult learner) 'or need to learn' the judgement of those who teach, organize or plan the provision). Out-of-school education (once a popular UNESCO term) emphasizes the nature of an education which is not limited to school classrooms or to school-age learners, but it leaves somewhat vague its relation to college or university education or to school extra-curricular activities for children (which are in fact usually excluded). 'Further education', originally intended in English legislation to stress any education 'beyond' the secondary (school) level or the tertiary (university) level, has come to be closely identified with only technical and commercial training. The term 'non-formal education', with its emphasis on the significance of that education which is outside the formal education system of regular school, college, and university,

leads to some confusion. The confusion with 'informal' educational methods exists, even amongst many adult educators, when in fact the term is not, of course, a comment on methodology. Even 'continuing education' (with its encouragement for adult learning) and 'permanent education' (an obviously inaccurate translation of the French 'education permanente') are terms which describe philosophies and ideals of education rather than existing practical fields of provision. One hesitates to venture further into the quicksands of inter-language semantics, beyond commenting here that the French term *éducation populaire*, although included in the phrase 'Education of adults', is clearly not entirely synonymous with it. Linguistic (and cultural) translation is evidently one of the important problems being faced by any comparative study.

1.5 Methods of Comparative Education

On the whole, comparative education has been focussed on the elementary and secondary schools. However, since attention has been given to factors that affect whole systems of education, and such factors as "national character" have been invoked, attention has been paid to influences that also affect adult education.

It would have been quite feasible to date the examination of comparative education back to the Gracco-Roman period. The starting point might have been earlier, in the period about 500 AD when scholars from twenty countries would journey to India to study at the universities of Nalanda and Takshasila in order to understand and borrow the learning of India and to some extent the educational system of India.

There has been general agreement, however, to start with a period that is relatively recent and about which considerable data exists, thus eliminating the need for much additional research. Most of the textbooks on comparative education choose the same baseline: they

start with Marc-Antoine Julien, and they quote with approval his objective : "to collect facts and observations arranged in analytical charts which permit them certain principles and determined rules". Julien attempted, not without some success, to establish sound practices in collecting information. To this extent he is the right kind of progenitor. But so were many others in the middle ages, in Roman times, in the epochs when scholars in the Arab world carried an entire rich culture over thousands of leagues, and in India and China at least two thousands years ago.

For a considerable period of time the historians held sway in comparative education, as if it were their private domain. Somewhat more recently psychologists have tended to treat learning as if it were a sub-field in psychology and not something to which many disciplines speak. There are at least three main applications of historical methods to comparative studies :

- (i) History may furnish insights or hypotheses for testing the present. The testing may be done by applying methods of other social sciences, e. g. cost-benefit studies.
- (ii) Experiences in the past may be utilized to further test hypotheses formulated in the present.
- (iii) Knowledge of the past helps an observer who is engaged in obtaining first-hand observation in the complex present.

During the past few decades many behavioural scientists, such as Professor Arnold Anderson, have begun to apply their insight to the problems in comparative studies. The list of such studies is substantial and growing larger. Donald Adams, is of the wise that there is no single method for comparative education and that many methods must be employed and that anyone interested in

comparative studies should constantly be searching within the behavioural sciences for concepts and insights that might be applicable. Adams would maintain that at the beginning level comparative studies should be broad, designed to acquaint the learner with the scope of the whole field and with a few systems of organization by which information may be collected and general principles derived. His accent would be on a few select organizing, harmonizing concepts. For research specialist, Adams seems to counsel the application of any concept that seems relevant to the solution of particular problems : for example :

- (i) Sense of national unity (compare Canada and Nigeria with Australia);
- (ii) General economic situation (compare Hungary with Paraguay);
- (iii) Basic beliefs and traditions (compare Albania with Portugal);
- (iv) Status of educational thought (compare United States with U.S.S.R.);
- (v) Languages and language problems (compare India with France or USSR)
- (vi) Political orientation (compare East Germany with West Germany);
- (vii) Attitude towards international cooperation (compare Spain with Sweden).

The other approaches are :

(a) "Problem Orientation"— Discouraged in their attempts to find data, or to order whole systems of education in any meaningful way, or disdaining or refusing to use some organizing principles such as "national character", some writers have advocated beginning with certain problems about which, from a few countries at least, and

over a few periods in history, sufficient information is available for comparing. Examples of kinds of problems selected for comparing are vocational training for mechanics, or teaching reading at the elementary level. Those who advocate that a beginning be made with such problems, have usually urged that the specific problem must be seen in, and related back to, the national or societal context. Comparing educational systems by starting with problems can hardly be thought of as a major method. However, most scholars engaged in comparative studies have found it useful to adopt a problem-centred approach at least for part of the time. It is as much applicable to adult education as to the schooling of children and youth.

(b) "Functions"—Another approach which reexamines parts of a system, rather than the whole, is to identify "functions". Long before the cultural anthropologists began their observations, it was known that a "function" in one society that may be provided by a specialised institution may in another society be provided in a different form. To use a single example, the emergence of an adolescent girl that used to be accomplished in middle and upper class European or North American society through a "coming-out" part, takes very different institutional forms in India. But the function seems to be much the same. The function of occupational training may be provided by a specialized apprenticeship in one society, in a formal training school in another, inside a factory in a third. The study of functions, and how they are fostered, and the education associated with these functions does seem to provide a useful key to better understanding of that society.

In contrast to studying parts of an educational system, there are those who advocate macro-solutions. They would argue that any system of education may be perceived

and assessed as a component of a total overarching cultural system. Few will dispute such an assertion but the consequent difficulties are extreme. One of the best known systematized approaches to comparative education, in which an educational system is viewed as a component in a larger cultural context, has been devised by Professor Z. Bereday. He has attempted to set out what he considers the minimum steps in looking at an education system in its cultural context. He refers to comparative education as "a political geography of schools". Its task, with the aid of methods of other fields, is to search for lessons that can be deduced from the variations in educational practices in different societies". There are so easy solutions for Bereday. He advocates as preliminary preparations :

- (i) Acquire a familiarity with the educational system of one's own country or area.
- (ii) Study another system. Essential factors in this study are: (a) familiarity with the language; (b) residence in the host country; (c) "never-ceasing watchfulness to control one's own cultural or personal biases".

The main steps in his approach to comparative studies are :

- (i) Descriptive collection of pedagogical facts;
- (ii) Interpretation : It is the analysis of the facts by the methods of the different social sciences. Examples are political geography, which deals with descriptions in world perspective of political and social institutions of which education is one. Political science, particularly comparative government and international relations etc.
- (iii) Juxtaposition—It is the preliminary comparison of facts-finding concepts or principles for ordering the data-both experimentally and by following some formula such as systems analysis;

- (iv) Comparison—It is the final fusion of the facts with similarity assembled data from other countries for the purpose of comparisons and deriving plans for action, or hypotheses for testing, principles for evaluating. One of the stages in either step (iii) or (iv) may be to isolate specific problems for intensive investigation (education of girls and women) before moving on to the comparison of whole systems.

Robert Havighurst, in his attempt to study educational systems, analyzes each in relation to the basic social institution in each society—the family, the economy religion, and the state. "One good way", he says, "to study education comparatively, is to study the educational responses made by various societies to their social problems such as racial diversity, religious diversity, socio-economic stratification, social revolution and technological problems." These approaches by Havighurst, developed in his book, *Comparative Perspectives in Education*, might combine well with other methods.

1.6 An Adult Education Movement

Some decades ago, professional education of adults, in Great Britain at least had been classified under one of the two headings. One group was of those whose main interest was in the discipline of learning. The second group comprised of those who were interested in the educational development of adults than in the teaching of subjects. All this increased the interest in adult learning situations elsewhere, and of other related adult education institutional patterns often quite different from *his own* tradition. The differences existed not only within other contemporary cultures but also within his own community in time past. These differences were not due to successful adaptation to needs or of superior social progress. However, it involved the growing awareness of community

perspectives in the education of adults. It led to widespread popular movements among people who believed in the fundamental value of adult education and displayed much of the fervour of religious or political creeds. Knowledge, it was claimed, was the path of salvation and gave the opportunity to participate in power. The movement fostered an enthusiasm, an idealism which has not been entirely lost even in a more prosaic modern age, and it has developed valuable insights. There are parallels to such early twentieth century movements in Scandinavia and in America, but with some variety in their timing, scale and coherence. *These* apostles of the local British movement, in particular, looked across national frontiers to carry the creed of adult education to other people and to ally with kindred spirits abroad. Amongst such early 'missionaries' of the movement was to be found the much-travelled Mansbridge (founder of the workers' Educational Association). He and others found the development of wider international and comparative perspective to be a necessary and an intriguing task. In the world, there existed quite some unfamiliar variety of adult educational institutions and allied activities with often contrasted strongly with their own adult educators, groups of enthusiasts who in other countries were involved both in areas and in objectives of adult activity quite different than those to which they were themselves accustomed, and that other people and other cultures had evolved their own different emphases and priorities both in their philosophy of popular education and in their practices. However, the concept of a universal movement for the education of adults had persisted in many parts of the profession even to the 1980s. This interest of the world community in adult education led to the organisation of the first full 'world conference' on adult education, called together by adult educator members of the World Association for Adult Education (the WAAE) in Cambridge (England) in 1929. It was

attended by nearly 300 members and thirty-three national delegations. Fraternal delegations attended it from the League of Nations Office, the International Labour Office and the British Broadcasting Authority. There was, further, a delegation from the World Federation of Educational Association (the WFEA), which had made the claim that "Truth and the materials of education are universal", and discussed in its conference the subjects of adolescent, education, illiteracy and adult education. However, the fact remains that some countries like USA, and France and organisations like Catholic Church etc. had organised nearly 100 conferences and seminars on this theme earlier also involving two or more than two countries. However, the complete record of it is difficult to be collected. Yet the fact remains that it was at the Royal Colonial Institute (London) that the World Association for Adult Education was inaugurated with Mansbridge as chairman and with offices in London, and also in Birkenhead, and with links with the League of Nations in Geneva. It was also the British Institute of Adult Education that was established as the first national focus for the fostering and study of adult education in 1921. The second such national focus was probably, the American Association of Adult Education (the AAAE) in 1926.

The World Association staged a second conference in 1931 at Vienna. The only such conference for the 1940s is the important world conference, sponsored by the newly established United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), in 1949 at Elsinore, Denmark, four years after the devastation of the Second World War. It was done in the same way as the World Association had followed soon after the First World War. Twenty-one countries responded by sending national delegations, another six represented informally. This was followed by forty six inter-country adult education

conferences and consultations, all through the 1950s. Thirty-four such conferences were arranged before 1956. The tempo continued at almost the same level during the 1960s and the 1970s. With the birth of new sovereign nations, trebling the membership attending these gatherings varied considerably from one occasion to another. The more comprehensive and influential world conferences included the large UNESCO—sponsored meetings at Montreal (Canada) in 1960 and at Tokyo (Japan) in 1972 and the International Congress on University Adult Education at Humleback (Denmark) in 1965.

Adult Education in Comparative Perspective

Even when it is a fact that many institutions of adult education like university 'extension' workers' education, or folk colleges, translated outside their countries of origin are numerous, the comparative exercise has led most educationists, to look with new eyes at their own time-honoured traditions and practices, to question as to whether these practices was of central importance and what was of merely local and emperhal or accidental importance. It seemed that we could learn from other countries and could help them, but it was extremely difficult to read the lessons accurately without some form of guidance. What, we may ask, is the nature of comparative study of adult education? The study of adult education is clearly related to the study of education in general, even if the term 'education' is more often 'annexed' to mean only school education and other such formal provisions. Much that has been written about comparative education must have relevance also to the adult field. However, some might even deny that the two fields merit distinctly different attention.

1.7 Stages of the Use of Comparative Studies

1. Elementary Stage In his work on comparative studies and educational decision-making, King states that

it is extremely important that teachers should have some elementary comparative awareness', and also 'some simple comparative equipment for the analysis of their own question and purposes'.

2. Second Stage This, it is suggested, is the second and more advanced stage where practical problems and practical questions might be treated cross-culturally. In the field of adult education there could presumably be such questions as the problem of the relationship between independent provision and government provision, or the stimulation of a wish for education amongst those adults who are less privileged or gifted educationally.

3. Third Stage It is the stage of positive and purposeful academic inquiry into such matters as the economics of education or the establishment of relevant comparative data by which to establish more precise evaluation and relationships.

The difficulty with this kind of classification of stages, important as it is to distinguish levels and varieties of purpose, is that it is in practice rarely possible entirely to separate these stages of study.

The Value of a Comparative Perspective and its Problems

Hans, in his preface to the 1958 edition of his *Comparative Education*, observes that all comparative studies, whether of law, of government or of any other social science, begin with the comparison of existing institutions. The three necessary steps in the study are national studies in a historical setting, their relation to nation character and the collection of data on existing systems.

The underlying purpose of such analysis is to more than mere academic training. It is the application of informed decision on education reform.

There are a number of factors which differentiate the

nature of comparative approaches to adult education from the approaches to school education. The first is the very wide variety of adult education institutions, organizations and methods as compared to the relative universality of the school or college and classroom. The second is the difficulty of defining educational levels in adult education in the way in which they are used in some approaches to comparative formal education. The 'levels' approach, comparing provision at primary, secondary, academic, technical and others-levels in different cultures, is one convenient way of studying education. But then adult education is normally classified without discrimination as the final level with, perhaps, the unspoken assumption that age defines level. The third is the wide variety of sometimes conflicting aims and objectives by which the provision of adult education is motivated. There is equally the very wide variety of agencies or of animators through whom, or through which, people are interested in 'educating' the adult or in assisting the adult to educate himself.

In the words of Harris, 'We might, therefore summarize the distinguishing features of comparative studies in adult education as follows. It displays a bewildering variety of institutional forms and an equally wide variety of agencies and providers. Its purpose and objectives are complex and often multiple. In many cases the relevant effects of any particular activity cannot easily be measured by other than subjective assessment. It does not lend itself easily to any classification by levels of education common to different societies. And finally its wide range of objectives, as wide as human society itself, make its activities and institutions difficult to evaluate in cross-cultural comparisons where each adult culture will produce its own contemporary value systems and priorities. Yet all this should add up to a prescription not for academic despair but merely for caution'.

Alternative approaches

The following needs to be specially mentioned.

1. The Regional Approach The first presents suitable opportunities to examine the relation between adult educational institutions and practice. On the one hand, and the social-physical background on the other hand. Perhaps such a relationship can only be studied in depth in a single country i. e. one's own. It can only be examined in lesser details in a few selected 'foreign' lands.

2. The Problem Approach It has equal relevance or comparable interest in the communities taken i. e. 'adult vocational education' and 'the role of the Government', the education of the under-privileged' 'the education of women etc.

3. The Lead Approach It does not seem quite as valuable for reasons suggested earlier, unless 'levels' substitute the idea of commonly 'define objectives' or 'types' of adult education. It would be possible then to study across national boundaries the effectiveness of different institutions designed to contribute to such objectives as 'education for democracy' or 'integration of racial sub-cultural communities.'

4. The Factor Approach This approach is to distinguish the major factors which have helped to shape the general pattern and the separate institutions an adult educational provision. These were identified by Hans as racial factors, linguistic factors, geographic and economic factors, religious factors and what we can describe as philosophical and political factors. In adult education these could be the historical, geographical and economic, the financial and legislative, and the dominant educational philosophies or rationalizations guiding the providing agencies, government or non-government. In the United States, for instance, the relevant history of immigration,

the pioneering initiative and political self-assertion has made a prominent mark on its educational activity. In Scandinavia, on the other hand, an educationalist might be more impressed by the effects both the geographical factors and of specific educational philosophy.

5. The Institution Approach One might trace the activity of apparently similar institutions. This has in fact been the basis for several international conferences such as the 1962 Oslo Conference on 'The European Universities and Adult Education' on the 1967 Budapest International Conference on 'Cultural Centres' or the conferences of the International Federation of Workers' Educational Associations which have studied adult student-controlled organizations. It needs to be kept in view that particular institutions in adult education have quite differing significance in different cultural and social settings. Universities, cultural centres and student associations will certainly have a quite different significance in Britain, in Scandinavia and in Russia, to take only three examples. It might be even more valuable to study the 'leading institutions' in any region, or those which are locally felt to have special significance in different nations.

6. The Pattern Approach It includes the comparison of patterns of provision, the relationship of providing agencies within any community—statutory, voluntary associations or societies, university or institute provision for adult education, independent welfare agencies and groups, public corporations and commercially provided agencies.

7. The Taxonomy Approach This was attempted by the Exeter Conference and one of the results of their labours was a series of tables which laid out comparative data on educational systems and adult education in only nine countries. There was also a questionnaire with nine major questions of which two were 'What kind of person

are you trying to develop through adult education?' and 'What kinds of adult education do you feel are being carried on most successfully in your country now?'

1.8 Definitions of Concepts

In the term "comparative studies", rightly or wrongly we have turned our back on the term "comparative education", despite the valuable contributions of many who have carried out their work under this general rubric. To many, today, comparative education is a term lacking precise meaning, or at best it connotes a small section of a single field, education. Our concerns go far beyond a single field called education. We are interested in what can be applied from comparative history or comparative sociology or any other discipline. We are concerned with the impact of events and happenings and circumstances upon the learning of people, activities which are rarely considered in a course in education. Accordingly, we have adopted as a generic term 'comparative studies' to include any phenomena that affects learning.

Of course, this choice of a comprehensive definition pushes us into another peril, of having a term that is so broad that it is almost meaningless. As one way to increase rigour we have been emphasizing the word 'comparative' and have been seeking effective means of comparing. The comparing is carried on systematically enough to result in understanding and in changes of practice.

Nomenclature is important. It is more than rhetoric, more than a game. The world may be becoming a global village but villagers still must learn how to talk with each other, how to share and learn from each other. They should stop making not only their own mistakes but copying the mistakes everyone else has made. They need to know how to welcome, not simply be resigned to, constructive change, while at the same time resist adopting

fads or innovations which will have little benefit for human happiness, and how to stand together to resist changes that will and belittle and cripple human beings. In other words, comparative studies might become a kind of universal "language," perhaps as universal and significant as science.

1.9. Comparative Adult Education

There is no such subject, as 'comparative adult education.' The phrase, it is sometimes suggested, is only a convenient shorthand term for describing comparative students in adult education. No general approach or principles of treatment can be deduced from such studies. In a sense this is true, as adult education can itself be regarded as merely a term to describe education i.e. the organization and natural laws of the learning-teaching process as applied to adults.

As one studies it, he begins to understand something of logic behind foreign educational practice. This makes him better equipped to probe, with more imagination and wider perspective than previously, the whole concept of education and the relationship between adult education and organized society. This makes him deal persons in communities which are known as nation states. It leads to international comparisons. However, it can compare between different societies in the same country or different time periods in the same society or country. Its objectives could be :

- (a) To understand better system and culture of foreigners and to appreciate it in their culture and society.
- (b) To be able to understand our own system in a better way in the light of wisdom gained by understanding the system and problems of others.
- (c) To find peaceful solutions of command antagonisms.

- (d) To understand the problem of social and economic planning in a more scientific way.
- (e) To improve one's own adult education programme.
- (f) To use educational innovations of other countries.

The objective of any study will, however, decide the area, aspects, facilities, techniques and methodologies which are to be compared. It will differ from study to study. About the methodology of comparison Harris holds an opinion that it will depend upon the purpose of comparison. He says, "If the purpose involves particular institutions, then the details of organization and programme, of staffing, of clientele, and of financing are likely to be helpful. History and environment, to the degree that they are closely pertinent, should be essential. Objectives and philosophical policy statements are important where these are recorded and available. Much of the data which might be considered potentially helpful will probably prove just not to be accessible. Like the detective in the crime novel, the researcher and the educational planner will use his incomplete clues to reconstruct his evidence. His experience must be used to interpret and complete an incomplete picture, as the historian must recreate the past. His comparisons will be tentative and cautious, and with a healthy awareness of those areas where error is possible or even probable.

1.10 Areas of Comparison

The areas for international comparison could be :

- (a) The area of specific adult education institutions, each class of institution being related and identified by initial philosophy or inspiration by similar relationships between organizing agent and learner, by their intended participants or learner target, and by their approach to teaching.

- (b) The area of teaching methods, compared and contrasted in the details of the techniques and organization through which the methods were applied. There were contrasts, too, in the philosophical emphases used to justify and explain each method.
- (c) The area of participant groups or target groups, selected in each community as objectives for adult educational provision.
- (d) The legislation on education of adults, and provision, the precise balance and relationship between non-statutory and statutory provision. Non-statutory would include both the voluntary and the independent while statutory would include both parastatal and ministry-directed.
- (e) More traditional topics for cross-cultural comparisons', might include alternative routes to higher education, adult education in business and industry, textbooks in adult education, and financial and budgetary planning.

Comparative Studies and Application

A paper in 1979 by Knoll on "The Importance and Use of Comparative Studies" concludes by observing that 'comparative research in adult education ..will only then succeed in asserting itself, when it no longer circles around methodological problems and continually discusses the difficulties of comparison.' It must prove itself, he claims, by giving proof of its relevance, proof that it can really deliver the works for the planner, the practical administrator and the educator.

Academic teaching of and research in comparative studies, is an other area of studies. Titmus comments that there is a hesitation amongst university institutions in undertaking such teaching because of the relative lack of

resources and competent teachers in the subject. 'The public image of the subject', he writes 'may well have deterred them', both from the teaching and the writing. In the words of Harris, "Particularly important might be the information provided by study of cross-cultural variations to particular problems. The lessons of the way in which ideas and practices become diffused and finally accepted communities, innovation theory and cultural diffusion are also important. The idea that studies should be made of cross-cultural activities by specialists in the preparation or care of immigrants, military overseas, political representative or 'expert' teams, is an interesting and promising suggestion. Amongst the suggestions for search amongst the findings of other comparative disciplines, there would seem to be little doubt that it is essential to give more attention than is sometimes given to philosophical and religious comparisons. A study of the subsequent careers of ex-graduates from comparative education courses (and from courses in adult education training in general) is, from first-hand experience of the exercise, salutary and thought-provoking for the lectures of such courses. That many 'ex-students' appear to move subsequently in their careers outside the educational field is significant and encouraging in itself. It is perhaps why that Kield has said, "Comparative studies are a basic foundation in adult education."

Comparative Studies in Adult Education

2.1 Introduction

Kidd narrates that a friend of his, returning from Cambodia, told him about an incident that, "A Cambodian pedestrian was knocked down by a Polish steam locomotive travelling to a brand new seaport constructed by the French. He was rushed in an East German ambulance, with a Japanese driver at the wheel, the ambulance using gasoline from the United States, along a highway laid down by the Americans, to a hospital built by the Russians, using predominantly Czech equipment. At night the patient

listened to a programme on a Japanese radio, the broadcast coming from a station provided by China". This highlights the cultural diffusion and the need to understand the excellence of different cultures, borrowing from them and also to improve upon one's own system in the light of wisdom gained from the study of the culture of others. Adult education can hardly be an exception to it. It is of still greater importance as adults are in a better position to realise the importance and significance of cultural variables. Kidd further says, "Some people are very much concerned about action for the improvement of adult education. They are alarmed or ashamed because hundreds of millions of human beings are illiterate, and multitudes have never had and cannot now have the education which ought to be right for every human being. Yet, the matter with which we are more concerned is that number of illiterates in absolute terms is increasing. They may feel, as illich does, that offering conventional schooling a relevant kind of education. They are wearied of debate about esoteric educational theories and concepts, intellectual fiddling while millions of men and women are burning with frustration and hatred because their legitimate expectations seem nowhere nearer to achievement. Such persons want to know what the fuss about methods is all about. However, others, because what they have read about comparative studies, seems so ad-hoc and pointless, are equally determined that an appropriate rationale be found and articulated".

2.2. Goals of Comparative Studies in Adult Education

The goals have, no doubt, been identified at different times in different cultures. However, Kidd has identified the following eight goals :

- (i) Comparative Studies provide the data by which it can be ascertained whether a particular kind of behaviour is characteristic of a given culture or

group or may be characteristic of the human race. One can find out that more underdeveloped is the nation, the lesser is the level of achievements of the students in disciplines like mathematics, science, language and social studies. In the same way some communities in different cultures have deeper insight into the mathematical concepts than concepts than certain other communities. For example, in India, 'Banga' (a community which is traditionally a business community) is sharper in arithmetical calculations than most of other communities, especially the scheduled castes. However, all these are for the time being common sense observations and need to be confirmed by scientific observation, research investigations and surveys.

- (ii) Comparative Studies provide an effective means of education and training of those who will be working in other countries and cultures. In other words, for some people it is a form of vocational and professional teaching. One can find that Great Britain is preparing a big chunk of her superior manpower for export to other countries. It is necessary for her to know as to which type of manpower is needed by the countries to which her manpower is to be exported. A comparative study of adult education is bound to throw some light on this problem. It also helps in many ways to facilitate brain-drain, which infact, is mostly productive for both the developed and developing countries from the economic point of view, but may not be so from social and cultural points of view. Comparative studies in adult education help to facilitate such a programmes. A good deal of developed medical manpower is being exported from India to U.S.A. and U.K. If one

knows that in those countries the technology is more respected, he can adjust in that society in a better way than if he is ignorant about it and goes to settle down there. Here, in fact, we are not concerned with the problem of or merits and demerits of brain-drain, but we are looking the problem from the point of view of adjustment of those who go to settle down in other countries to work and earn. Comparative studies more so the comparative studies in adult education help in this direction a lot.

- (iii) Comparative studies are an effective content for people who simply wish to satisfy their interest or curiosity about human beings or societies. This purpose is a "liberal of human study" with no necessary vocational outcome. In fact adult education cannot mean the same thing for different culture. While the newly independent nations with under-developed economics identify it with literacy, some others who have taken some advance steps on the road of economic and political development try to relate it with functional literacy. Yet, there are many nations which have still a bit more developed economics or pol'ty, they create literacy environments and give it the name of adult education. With economically advanced nations, it is taken synonymous with life long education. However, a fact remains that in bigger countries like India one can find pockets of all such formets of adult education, in which each type of adult education can be located. In the light of the stage of economic, social and educational development of each country, culture or pocket in a country, different goals of adult education can be identified in different countries and in some cases within the same country. Such

studies might contribute the making of "international education" a more disciplined educational activity. One of the fundamental instincts with human beings is to know more and more about not only his own society and culture but about other societies, cultures and races and the way in which they have been able to make their customs and traditions. It is fascinating for an American girl to see Indian girls dressed in Rajasthani or Punjabi dress. In the same way, it is interesting for Indian youth to know about the sex free society of Denmark and Sweden. It becomes a matter of interest to observe that while teachers in Denmark hold a sex education classes and help in the adjustment of sexual problem of students, it is considered immoral in India to talk of sex with students, even to do so in their presence. The author once met a scholar of U.K. who was conducting a research form some British University on the population of Kangra District. His area of investigation was Status in that Society. The scholar narrated the incident that he fell in love with the daughter of his Professor or Supervisor. The girl was very simple. He dated with her and took her out on diffetent occassions. One evening he requested her to share bed with him. She tactfully avoided. On reaching her home, she shared with her mother the problem of the request of Mr. Jones, about the sharing of the bed. The mother jokingly called the father in the presence of the girl and told him that his daughter wanted to sleep with Jones. In India, this would have created bloodshed, but in U.K. the father laughed and said, alright, if she understood quite well as to what she was going to do, she might do whatever she liked, but requested not to bring

a small child, to look after, for them. Now all this was quite interesting for the author who belonged to a culture in which Professors are respected in different ways and traditions. For all such interesting revealings and their enjoyment, the adult education programmes of different countries become interesting studies.

- (iv) Comparative Studies help individuals to obtain a heightened and deepened understanding of one's self and one's own culture. It is disciplined search for self-understanding that goes beyond a "liberal education". At times one thinks that his own traditions and customs are more enlightening than those of others, even when it is not a fact. It has been observed that in polyandry, the woman who lives as the wife of more than one man, does not see the benefits of one to one marriage. She talks of the merits of that system, till she is exposed to other cultures wherein such traditions did not exist. The comparative knowledge or education of other cultures throw a different type of light in her. The same is true of polygamy also. In almost all tribes in India one of these customs exists, but it has been observed that when these tribes get the knowledge of other societies and cultures they shun the traditions and join the modernisation process. This is also why that such tribes are now shunning the superstitions. It is facilitated with the help of comparative studies in adult education in different countries of the world. It can be possible to do so in a better way if studies in comparative education are conducted and comparative education is studied in an effective way.
- (v) Comparative Studies provide the means by which

a planner or administrator of an educational institution or system may better understand his own institution or system. This is also a vocational and professional goal, but it differs in scale and parameter than what has been discussed above under goal number (ii). This can be better understood by the problem of vocationalisation of education in India. One of the problems of educational system of India is the weaknesses of secondary education. It is not proving to be a terminus. The result is that it is leading to unwanted expansion of higher education and also unemployment. The remedy seems to be that vocational channels should be introduced. These are certain social problems being faced in the implementation of this scheme. One can learn a lot as to how this problem has been tackled by other societies i.e. U.S.A., U.K. and U.S.S.R. and try to get some wisdom and plan further on the basis of such wisdom. Here one is to be cautious and there are dangers of another country to some country. It is why that different experiments of different countries tried in India have not yielded the desired results. It is, in fact, to acquire a type of wisdom and then try to plan one's own system based on the wisdom gained from the experiments of other nation. Keeping this in view 10+2+3 programme of New Education Policy of India (1986) is being planned. It seems that it would not succeed in India, in the long run, as the speed with which it is being implemented may prove to be more dangerous for its success. Moreover, it may be so because the problem is not being looked into from the angle of comparative studies of adult education.

- (vi) Comparative studies provide systematic and rational

means by which those living in one culture can choose to adopt or adapt, or can choose to reject and resist, the impact of cultural or educational influences from outside that specific culture. In fact, every culture has its own excellence and that is to be preserved. It will not be correct to say that culture of advanced countries needs to be adopted. There are certain excellences in different cultures of traditional types also. For example, the respects and regards for the parents which is shown in India, in comparison with the Western culture is of certain good and positive point in Indian culture which Indians living abroad want to retain. It is perhaps why that many of the Indians, who are settled in advanced countries, send their wards to Indian Public Schools for education, even when the standards in Indian Public Schools are comparatively lower than many Public Schools of U.K.

Similarly, one of the common traits of an Englishman is that he is sincere to the job he does, punctual and at the time national also. All these traits are comparatively lacking in Indian situation. There is a need that educational system of India be looked into in comparative perspective. There is also a need to look into the efforts made in the field of education and also adult education with which China has been able to adopt 'One Child Family' programme which has been a success whereas Indians have not been able to see through their 'Two Child Family Policy'. A comparative education programme and comparative adult education programme can help in developing an insight and wisdom which can lead to successful population control, which is one of the most important problems in India.

- (vii) Comparative Studies provide experience and hypotheses useful for assessing the probable effect or consequence of a proposed educational innovation. The democratisation process has made it quite clear that the formal system of education is not capable of delivering educational goods for universal education and that every body in this world needs to be educated to the best of his capacities and capabilities. Thus alternatives in education are being looked into. Innovations in education i.e. correspondence education, Open University, University without walls, School on the Wheels, Spare Time Education, Part-Time Education, Distance Education, Mass Communication and Non-formal Education are being increasingly used for educating the masses. This can be profitably be done if the experiments and experiences gained by different countries are pooled and wisdom so gained applied. The new methods of teaching i.e. programmed instruction, simulated teaching, micro teaching and team teaching can go a long way in solving many problem of education in different countries of the world. It can be possible to do so in a better way if studies in comparative education are conducted and comparative education is studied in an effective and profitable way.
- (viii) Comparative Studies are a necessary preperation for "Cross-national" or "cross-cultural" research. This is, in fact, the new area of research which is fast coming up. The world is leading towards one world government, better understanding of international problems and better socio-cultural development.

In addition the following more goals have been identified :

- (i) Claims have been made that a by-product of comparative studies in education will be the refinement of modes and methods that can be applied to other comparative disciplines such as comparative law comparative literature or comparative religion. The more the work is done on these methods the more refined tools will become, which in the ultimate analysis will become perfect for carrying on research in it.

- (ii) Comparative studies will lead to more exact reporting and analysis of education and thus contribute to finding a "language of discourse" which will aid in international co-operation towards a solution of educational problems. The time has now come to be considered as a variable which effects the social, economics, political and cultural aspects of the life of any country or society. It is more so, so far as economic aspect is concerned. It has been proved by a number of researches carried out in India and abroad that other thing equal and if there is no unemployment, longer the years of schooling more is the earning of an individual. In the same way education is being increasingly used a tool for national international understanding, cultivation of democratic values and establishment of communistic ideology. Such are, in fact, the problems which are being faced by almost all the countries. The experience of other countries of the world in these areas will so a long way in the finding of the solution of such problems. The problem of adult education which no doubt means different things for different people in different countries, can better be solved by getting wisdom from the experiences of other societies. For example, India can learn a lot from USSR and China. It is also true to some

extent that in the area of population control India can, to considerable extent, get wisdom from the technique and methodology used by China and use it in modified form in this country. However, the fact remains that it will be difficult for India to apply the type of coercion which China has used to tackle her own problems like population control.

- (iii) There are, in the main, positive goals. Some people would develop as the most significant goal the capacity to withstand pressures to accept alien practices or resist those aspects that are inimical to the host culture. It would help to develop insights about cultural differences and values which might be employed for change or to resist change. In any such consideration, of course, one's values are central. For example, the people of U.K. do not change so easily, and adopt new value after a good deal of care and wisdom. It is why that they often laugh and say that they are 'muddling through.' They are the persons who have been able to rule their own country on traditions and without a written constitution. Their educational system installs such values in their character that they are considered to be man of character. A study of their educational system, in comparison with some other country, will help to bring changes in the character of the education which can help in the inculcation of some good points of character formation in the host country.
- (iv) It would help individuals to develop an understanding to follow practices that will be devised with considerable care. A course in comparative studies is not a means to equip you merely to shop for treasures or gadgets in an international boutique. Yet there have been courses offered in

international studies and comparative education that were little more informed than a travel poster or travelogue.

- (v) It would help to find rigorous and consistent methods which would be invented, refined and applied. The data collected on a questionnaire not exacting on different time axes, asked in scores of languages and related to concepts that were not identical. However, there is a great deal of evidence to show that there are underlying similarities in human needs and human responses to needs, and that there may be ways of tapping and ordering these similarities. However, only if we learn how to order what is to be found in ways which will yield meaning. We are not collectors of cultural trivia, shards and dance forms and advertisements, although all of those may be pertinent data in our treasure hunt. We are seeking some assurance that if we will look at certain phenomena, and examine them in certain kinds of results. For example, one can think of the relationship of educational level and family size. Baring a few exceptions, one can say that there is inverse relationship between educational level of the parents and their family size. This leads to an inference that higher the educational level smaller will be the family size. The same relationship is true with family size and socio-economic status of the people. One of the methods to control the population is that the educational level and socio-economic status of the masses be raised. This can then be studied in the adult education programmes of different countries. This can also be studied in comparative perspectives with different countries. Such investigations, tools,

findings and inferences are important in the comparative education and more so in comparative studies in adult education.

- (vi) The comparative studies help in the transfer of technology. In the words of Golbraith, "Most technological advance is now the result not of accident or inspiration or genius, but of highly purposeful effort. Once we had to wait for the Edisons and Wrights. Now, through education and organization we get something approaching the same results from much more common clay. We now get the larger part of our agricultural and industrial growth not from more capital investment but from improvements brought about by improved men. And this process of technological advance has become fairly predictable. We get from men and women pretty much what we invest in them. One can see that due to technological advancement and refined type of manpower, small country like U.K. could rule a vast empire and become one of the biggest powers of the world. One can learn from the role of their education in the effort of that nation.

About this big task Kidd says: "The task is so big that it must be undertaken by men of many countries, from disciplines and utilizing many ways of perceiving truth. There are so many facets to it that many of us of rather humble attainments can make our contribution. But the contribution will not be effective unless it is assessed carefully and diffused by others. We will need more opportunities for comparing notes and setting provisional goals. Somehow we must establish a collaboration between interested people in several countries-through exchanges of papers, course outlines, readings, and evaluation of each other's plans."

2.3 International Organizations and Adult Education

Historical Background. The emergence of international organizations concerned with adult education goes back at any rate to the middle of the last century. Even though its traces could be found in Church of Rome, which showed concern with the educational development of its members across the frontiers of one country. However, till the 19th century was a time when international understanding and co-operation were little more than vague concepts in the minds of the people. The Worlds Alliance of Young Men's Christian Associations founded in Paris in 1855, must certainly be mentioned as one the early pioneers. The Central theme of YMCA's throughout the world is the total development, in mind, body and spirit, of those who take part in the activities of the movement. For the achievement of this aim, YMCA programmes have always contained an educational component.

The emphasis on adult education has been perhaps more strongly developed in the sister organisation to YMCA, the Young Women's Christian Association. This world movement was founded in 1892, and throughout its history has encouraged its national affiliates to develop, in ways appropriate to the particular needs of each country and situation, education programmes for its members. All this goes to indicate that co-operation between adult educationists started as result of voluntry endeavour, and indeed to the present it is still the non-governmental organizations which are the main channels of communication between people actually engaged in the work of teaching adults. The first attempt in this direction was the World Association for Adult Education, founded by Mansbridge, the British adult Educationist, in 1918. It held the first international conference on Adult Education to be convened in Cambridge in 1929, but shortly afterwards it became one of the casualties of the disturbed world of

the thirties and ceased to exist. However, Coles has classified such organisations as under

(A) Global Organisations

1. Non-governmental organisations
 - (a) with adult education as their exclusive concern.
 - (b) in which adult education forms an important part of their work.
 - (c) in which there is some educational content in their work.
2. Inter-governmental organizations
 - (a) with adult education as an important part of their work.
 - (b) with some interest in adult education.
3. Trusts and charitable institutions

(B) Regional (Continental) Organizations

1. Non-governmental organizations
 - (a) with adult education as their exclusive concern.
 - (b) with some interest in adult education.
2. Inter-governmental organizations.

A. Global Organizations

1. Non-governmental organizations
 - (a) Organizations with adult education as their exclusive concern.

The four principal organizations in this category are (in order of their establishment) :

- (i) International Council for Correspondence Education (1938)
- (ii) International Federation of Workers' Educational Association (1947)
- (iii) International Congress of University Adult Education (1960)

(iv) International Council for Adult Education (1972).

(i) International Council for Correspondence Education (ICCE)

The ICCE's main objectives are to : promote knowledge and improvement of correspondence education throughout the world, exchange information respecting the growth organization of correspondence education and undertake relevant research. After its foundation conference in Canada in 1938, the second World War intervened, but the ICCE has held conferences at 3 year intervals on average from 1948 to the present. It has a small fund set up in memory of one of its pioneer leaders, Knute O. Broady, to assist a few persons from developing countries to attend its conferences. It has an active Research Committee and also publishes a Newsletter. The congress' constitution allows for both individual and institutional members.

(ii) International Federation of Workers' Educational Associations (IFWEA)

The IFWEA was founded in 1947 to promote cooperation between national bodies concerned with workers' education. It functions through clearinghouse services, exchange of information, publications, conferences and summer schools.

(iii) International Congress of University Adult Education

This organization was founded in 1960 to promote communication and co-operation between adult educationists in colleges and universities throughout the world.

The congress has consultative status with UNESCO. It has organized four international conferences (1960, 1965, 1970, 1975) at which adult educationists working

in Universities have discussed matters of mutual concern. In addition, the Congress organizes regional meetings and seminars for its members. A Journal is published three times annually, together with occasional papers on subjects relating to University adult education.

(iv) International Council for Adult Education

This is the youngest of the international non-governmental organizations exclusively engaged in adult education and potentially the most significant, since its purpose is to enable adult educationists in every branch of the profession to exchange information and to communicate with each other. The Council was established in 1972, at the time of third UNESCO International Conference on Adult Education. It has a strong international executive council and panels of specialists dealing with different aspects of adult education. It assists regional adult educational organizations in various programmes and in 1975 mounted a major international conference in Dares Sallam on Adult Education and Development. It publishes the internationally respected adult education journal, *Convergence*.

(b) Organizations in which Adult Education Forms an Important Part of Their Works

It may not be possible to prepare a comprehensive list of such organisations. How the list of some such organisations is as under :

- (i) Associated Country Women of the World.
- (ii) Boy Scouts World Bureau.
- (iii) International Alliance of Women.
- (iv) International Confederation of Free Trade Union,
- (v) International Co-operative Alliance.
- (vi) International Council of Women.
- (vii) International Federation for Parent Education.
- (viii) International Planned Parenthood Federation.
- (ix) World Alliance of Young Men's Christian Associations.

- (x) World Association of Girl Guides and Girl Scouts.
- (xi) World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession.
- (xii) World Young Women's Christian Association.
- (xiii) International Association of Educations for World Peace.

It is worthwhile to note that women organisations have been more active than the men organisations, in this sphere of activities which might along with other factors be due to discrimination against the fair sex.

(c) Organizations in Which there is some Educational Content in their Work.

The non-governmental organizations associated with UNESCO, for example, number several hundred, and no doubt there are others, which have not sought this relationship. Rather than make such a list, it is better to note the enormous variety of interests which are catered for. Again, considering only those organizations with A and B consultative status with UNESCO, the following list indicates the range of interest covered :

Broadcasting, Press, Universities, Churches, Medicine, Engineering, Culture, Science, Vocational Guidance, Student exchange, Art, Law, Commerce, Books, Trade Unions, Politics, Sport, Education, Social Welfare, Libraries, Architecture, Music, Criminology, Sociology, Health, Local government, Mass Communication, Business, Travel, Crafts world peace etc.

In addition, there are international organizations concerned either with particular groups in society or where membership is confined to certain categories of people.

Jews, Budhists, Catholics, Protestants, Architects, Journalists, Authors, Youths, the Blind, University staff, mentally and physical handicapped, etc.

2. Inter-governmental Organizations.

(a) Organizations with Adult Education as an Important Part of Their Work

UNESCO : About it, Coles writes that the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, was created in 1946 as that part of the United Nations system to be concerned with educational, scientific and cultural developments. Its headquarters is in Paris, and in addition to a specialist staff stationed there, it has regional offices and field experts throughout the developing countries of the world.

Education constitutes a major part of the world of UNESCO, and within this division of the organization there is a department concerned with adult education, with which is included adult literacy and youth work.

Through its Adult Education Department, UNESCO has convened three international conferences (Elsinore, 1946; Montreal, 1960; Tokyo, 1972) and numerous regional meetings and seminars. It has sponsored several publications and journals and currently produces a News-Letter. An international committee is associated with the department and this meets from time to time to review the contribution which UNESCO is making in adult education. UNESCO recruits and sustains field experts in adult education at the request of member states.

As one might expect, the problem of illiteracy has figured largely in the adult educational work of UNESCO, and the organization has been mainly responsible for promoting the concept of functional literacy. Following an international conference in 1965, UNESCO has been undertaking in cooperation with the member states concerned, literacy pilot projects, thus ensuring that objective research is brought to bear on what must be one of the most important and intractable problems of the world.

UNESCO stands in a unique position of all the organizations concerned with adult education. It is part of the United Nations family; it is permanent and in close contact with its member governments, it has accredited to it all the major international non-governmental organizations, numbering several hundred. No other organization is in such a position of influence. It is not surprising, therefore, that UNESCO is playing a major role in the education of thought about adult education. In particular it has stressed and won universal acceptance for the notion of life long, continuing education, and for the need of viewing adult education as being concerned with total development of man both as an economic and as a social person.

(b) Inter-Governmental Organizations with some Interest in Adult Education

It includes other members of the United Nations system have a strong educational bias to their work, and should perhaps be placed in the same category as UNESCO though to do so might detract from the outstanding position which that organization has : (i) the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, which its interest in agricultural extension work ; (ii) the International Labour Organization, concerned with workers' education ; and (iii) the World Health Organization, spreading health education, each have a marked interest aspects of adult education.

3. Trust and Charitable Institutions :

Some of such organisations are : Ford, Rockefeller, Carnegie, Nuffield, Friedrich Ebert and Kellogg. However, a complete list is not possible.

B. Regional Organizations

1. Non-governmental Organization

(a) Organizations with adult education as their exclusive concern :

The organizations in this category have emerged on a continental basis.

1. African Adult Education Association
2. Asian and South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education.
3. European Bureau of Adult Education.
4. Federation Interamericain de Education de Adultos
—FIDEA

About these organisations, Coles says, "The four regional international organizations listed above have developed in response to one primary need, that of providing a means where by adult educationists, working in broadly similar environments and facing much the same kind of problems, can communicate with each other, Through journals, news-letters, conferences and seminars, these organizations have been able to keep their members informed of developments taking place. In particular they have been a means where by national adult education organizations can come together for consultation. These regional organizations have also been able to plan and execute joint enterprises on behalf of their members, such as the publication of journals, co-ordinating research and organizing area conferences".

(b) Regional Non-Governmental Organizations with some Interest in Adult Education :

Some organizations which can claim to have an adult education as a component are :

- (i) Association of African Universities.
- (ii) Association of Arab Universities.
- (iii) Association for Teacher Education in Asia.
- (iv) Union of Latin American Universities.

2. Inter-governmental Organizations

Inter-governmental organizations of a regional or continental nature have emerged in recent years, mainly of a political or economic kind but which nevertheless have, in varying degrees, an interest in education. Examples of these are :

- (a) The Council of Europe.
- (b) The Organization of African Unity.
- (c) Economic Commission for Africa.
- (d) The South Pacific Commission.

2.4 International Dimensions of Adult Education

It is interesting to speculate why adult education always seems to have had an international dimension. However, until some further work is done by historians, speculating is all that we can do.

Many adult education ventures were advanced by men who were passionate about reforming society, e.g. the "Sunday Schools" for men and women in England or the Welsh campaign for literacy, both in the 18th centuries education associated with political reform, the Chartists and responses to the industrial revolution i.e. the Mechanics' Institutes.

About it Kidd says : "The borrowing, where it occurred, seems to have happened without much assessment of how the new activity might change the host society. However, some ideas and certain institutions did meet heavy resistance. The Danish Folk High School penetrated to other Scandinavian countries but only when it was modified substantially. While the "idea" of the folk high school has gone to most countries and has been influential in stimulating activities in scores of countries, the form of the institution has only in a few rather special circumstances, been adapted elsewhere.

2.5 Important International Events in Comparative Studies in Adult Education

- (i) First International Conference on "The Comparative Study on Adult Education", June 1966. Report : The Exeter Papers.
- (ii) Establishment of a post-graduate programme in Comparative Studies in Adult Education at OISE, 1967. Subsequently, courses have been offered in eight other universities.
- (iii) Decision by UNESCO to focus greater attention on comparative education.
- (iv) Successive seminars on comparative adult education at OISE, 1968, 1969, 1971. Reports available. Seminar at Pugwash in 1970 to consider "next steps." Convergence in 1970 published a complete issue on comparative Studies in Adult Education.
- (v) Decision by IJUAE to establish a Committee on Comparative Adult Education headed by John Lowe. IJUAE publishes many article useful in comparative studies.
- (vi) International Seminar on Comparative Studies in Adult Education (Ministry of Denmark and UNESCO) at Nordborg, January 1972. Report : Agenda for Comparative Studies in Adult Education.
- (vii) A major "cross-national study" carried out during 1969-72, involving scholars in Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, United States, and Canada. Discussions proceeding about further "crossnational" research.
- (viii) UNESCO Third International Conference on Adult Education, Tokyo, 1972. Retrospective paper by John Lowe and many of the reports prepared for

the Conference provide more documentation than ever available before.

- (ix) Inventory of research, teaching and scholars in comparative adult education by Jindra Kulich, two reports, 1972. The inventory showed that a number of individual scholars are now at work in this field.
- (x) Decision by the International Bureau of Education at Geneva (UNESCO) to include adult education in its documentation for comparative studies. A conference on documentation was held at IBE in May, 1973.
- (xi) Decision of Institute of Pedagogy at Hamburg (UNESCO) to include comparative studies dealing with the implications of education permanente, October, 1972.
- (xii) Decision by UNESCO General Conference to hold an International Seminar on Comparative Adult Education in Africa—to consolidate work in progress and plan next steps. This was held in Nairobi in 1975.

(a) Cross Cultural Activities and Studies

Many of the phenomena one encounters in conferences and journals that have multi-cultural dimensions provide information and may provide insights valuable for comparative education.

- (i) Studies for behaviour in different countries. A very elaborate study that is going on simultaneously in several countries is aimed at finding out how people use their work time and free time, and what choices they actually make when they are able to choose how to spend their time.
- (ii) Studies and reports by psychiatrists who for historical and other reasons seems to have travel-

led widely, worked in many countries; but kept in touch each other. Note in particular that there are several journals devoted to cross-cultural problems as well as many articles that analyse data drawn from several cultures.

(iii) Studies of economic plans, based on the common language of mathematics and statistics.

(iv) Orientation Programmes—Attempts to prepare people for exposure to new societies; military forces, political representatives, immigrants, international teams of experts etc.

(b) Comparative Approaches to Different Disciplines : It can be anticipated that comparative studies in adult education may profit considerably from comparative history, comparative law, comparative literature, comparative sociology, and so forth.

(c) Comparative Philosophy and Religion : Considerable work has been done in both comparative philosophy and comparative religion. These methods and strategies can profitably be used in the field of adult education.

(d) Planning : Because of the nature of this work, the new "profession" of educational planning is developing techniques and finding devices for comparing educational phenomena that may become extremely valuable for comparative studies.

(e) Systems Analysis and Operations Research : For a decade or more the application of system analysis in comparative studies has been recommended.

Systems analysis is restricted to the examination of data that can be quantified. While the omission of other kinds of data can be serious, particularly if the omission is not recognised, the systems approach does give promise of one method that may be applied, (i) as part of a general

strategy, (ii) to check on other kinds of data, and, (iii) to derive questions for further study.!

(f) Application of Simulation Games : The use of learning materials that sample reality or simulate it in some form (e.g. sociodrama, psychodrama, role-playing, case study) is gaining more currency. Persons who are being "trained" to live and work in another culture are prepared for the shift through taking part in an experience in which some aspects of the host culture are dramatized or simulated.

(g) Comparative Study of Creative Work : It may be quite possible to learn a good deal about an educational system, when careful and appropriate methods are developed, from the examination of the arts, music, handicrafts, imaginative literature, films and other creative products of people.

(h) Comparative Study of the "Graduates" of an Educational System : A range of questions is now being asked about those who have been "students" in adult education. For example, what kind of people take part in programmes of adult education in the United States? Do people of a similar economic or social or intellectual level take part in West Germany, or Japan, or the USSR? How do the "graduates" of such programmes compare, and how do they differ? It may be possible, through interviews, biographies, even novels and plays, that much useful material can be obtained. Such materials can also be used to develop questions and hypotheses, or as a check on data obtained in other ways, by systems analysis.

(ii) Innovation Theory and Cultural Diffusion : Considerable work has been done, in or close to organizations of adult education, concerning the adoption of innovations.

- (a) **Mechanic's Institutes** : from the United Kingdom to Australia, New Zealand, Canada;
- (b) **Folk High Schools** : from Denmark to other Scandinavian countries, later to India and Africa in modified form, and not transmitted successfully to the United Kingdom, United States or Canada;
- (c) **University Extension and Extra-Mural Studies** : There has been considerable spread of these ideas from England and from the United States to many countries;
- (d) **Workers' Education Association** : It spread from England through Western and Northern Europe, to Ghana, Australia, and New Zealand. The WEA did not spread to the United States.
- (e) **Sokol** : diffused to several countries in eastern Europe and, as an activity of immigrant groups, to Canada and the United States;
- (f) **Women's Institutes and Associated Country women of the World** : This organization has spread to more than fifty countries, although not prompted, primarily from Canada;
- (g) **Farm Radio**—The Name Farm Radio Forum is used for education carried on the radio in India and several countries of Africa. The idea of farm forum influenced markedly a programme for adult illiterates in Colombia. The organizational pattern of farm forum, applied under different names such as "Listening Post", spread to the English-speaking territories of the Caribbean.

These are perhaps sufficient examples around which to raise some important questions such as : (i) Why did these activities spread in some places and not in others ? (ii) Have these adopted programmes nourished or tended

to inhibit the development of indigenous educational activities ?

Next Steps in the Development of Comparative Studies in Adult Education

What are some of the main targets for future work ?
These might include the following :

- (a) Some agreement about definitions and terminology.
- (b) Agreement about objectives and goals.
- (c) Agreement about basic kinds of data that should be collected in each country.
- (d) Linking comparative adult education with the field of comparative education.
- (e) Developing systems of monitoring reports and research projects in different languages and different countries.
- (f) Developing systems of monitoring other comparative fields such as comparative law and comparative sociology.
- (g) Further major cross-national research projects involving several countries such as "Recurrent education", motivation, self-directed learning, "employed school leaver".
- (h) Can some of the tasks of testing modes of comparing be shared ?
- (i) What materials are needed for courses of study ? Should courses of study be prepared at level of under-graduate or community college teaching, or for non-institutional for adults ?
- (j) Most adult educationists need some exposure to the methods and content of comparative studies. And a few professors and research specialists may be needed. Where should they be trained ?

Okot P' Bitch has said :

"There is a growing tendency in Africa for people to believe that most of their ills are imported, that the real sources of our problems come from outside. Another, but contradictory, phenomenon is the belief that the solutions to our social ills can be imported. Foreign 'experts' and peace corps swarm the country like white ants. Every week planes leave Lusaka, Entebbe, Nairobi, and Dares Salaam with returning experts and ministers going abroad to negotiate foreign aid and more experts; and because we believe in positive neutrality we seek aid from both East and West.

I believe that most of our social ills are indigenous, that the primary sources of our problems are native. They are rooted in the social set-up, and the most effective solutions cannot be imported but must be the result of deliberate reorganization of the resources available for tackling specific issues."

Organisational Patterns

3.1. Systems of Adult Education

It is to describe the education of adults the same countries. The term 'system' implies a hierarchy of responsibilities, of authority and a formal relationship of one activity to another, or of one agency to another. It is not present much in adult education provision. The controversies in formal education in most cases, will involve, or may lead to, possible modifications or major changes in a systematic framework. However, where the controversies are concerned with non-formal adult

education, it is clear that we are speaking about nothing so rigid as a 'system'. The term 'pattern' is perhaps a more accurate one to describe a distinctive set of organizations, institutions, agencies and some times non-institutionalized activities which all serve adult learning, but have come into being in response to a wide variety of situations and needs. For example the patterns of folk schools of highly developed agriculturist society of Denmark is quite different from the furthers education programme of industrialised society of U. K. It will have taken many different forms, and many of these forms will, quite possibly, not be labelled as education and may not be recognized as such, even by those organizing or participating in the activity. Yet the patterns and some of their characteristics are individually identifiable, unique in many ways to each country. It has historically been logical to approach comparative study of the subject by contrasting and comparing these patterns of provision.

In this regard Harris says, "If we use the definition of adult education given above, i. e. organized provision intended to help adults to learn . ' the first emphasis must be on the providing agencies and the programmes which express that provision. It might also be on the reality and nature of control over those programmes, through legislation (where relevant), through finance (if tightly supervised) and through day-to-day planning and administration. It would also be on the structure of agencies, on their relationships with other authorities and on their explicit policies and definition. However, the word agencies, is used here as including more than merely the educational institutions, educational departments and the educational administrative organizations. The providing bodies may be the learner participants, grouped in larger associations, or in smaller clubs and societies down to the smallest groups, who meet at irregular intervals and in private premises. It will include even the small committees,

or the informal discussion groups working on some problem with the help of their own experience and reading-groups individuals organizing their own self-learning. However, the term will cover also many larger organizations and institutions who are concerned primarily with purposes which are non-educational. Their educational activity, though effective and important, may be only a secondary objective. It may be intended to serve or to be positively helpful also to other ends than purely educational ones, or in the case of army education or Sunday schools. Such organizational aims may be political, or religious, or social or economic or even medical and civic welfare. A distinction might be made here between education (with the stress on understanding, knowledge and development) and propaganda (with the over-riding interest in persuasion), although the two may often co-exist without discomfort".

When we are to compare the adult education of different countries, we must know the patterns and provisions even when these may or may not resemble or exist in different countries as these are to be established for different reasons i e. historical, political, geographical, social, administrative, economic and cultural. While making international comparisons one is not sometimes comparing activities which have little in common, whether in nature or in content, except that both activities serve adult clients. While dealing with international comparisons one is to be clear in his mind about language and its translations. In some cases the exact translation is not possible and also it is not possible to convey the cultural meaning of the terms. For example, in Sikh culture the term 'Sangat' and 'Pangat' are used in the process of adult education. In order to make spiritual discussions or narration, people get together and thrash difficult religious concepts. It is called 'Sangat'. In the same way, in order to teach humbleness, equality and brotherhood, free lunch is

served in sikh temples. For this purpose people sit in straight lines and eat their meals. This concept is found in sikh culture and to some extent in some other communities, in India. It is difficult to either find their translation or equivalent in Western culture. In the same the concept of Anganwadi in India, in the field of adult education is purely an Indian institution. It is difficult either to translate it or to find its equivalent even in the most developed language of the world i.e. English. However, the problem may not be so acute in the countries where the same language is used i.e. U.K., U.S.A. and some African countries. However, the fact remains that it is impossible to progress far, even in this early stage of comparison, in this diffused field of adult education without some degree of agreement on a system of categories within adult educational provision and programmes. For international comparison, the categorization must be wide enough and also sufficiently perceptive to fit the differing circumstances of very different societies. A taxonomy which may be logical in one culture may lose its relevance in another.

A report for the International Union of Local Authorities (mainly European), in 1955 gathered some of its details, listed under the following headings (a) providing organisations i.e. central or local authorities, universities, churches, trade unions and co-operatives, (b) special organisations concerned with evening courses, residential, educational publications, or broadcast, (c) local authority roles institutions, premises, finance etc., (d) finance adequacy, and sources, (e) curricula. The international committee of University Adult Education (ICUAE) in 1966 asked a wider variety of questions and listed five category headings: (a) remedial/fundamental, (b) vocational/technical/professional, (c) health/welfare/family competence, (d) civic/political/community; (e) self fulfilment. A Wisconsin

University seminar attempting a somewhat similar exercise, covering eight countries in five continents, asked for data under different headings: (a) needs/problems (b) literacy/remedial programmes; (c) elementary/secondary education; (d) citizenship education; (e) universities refresher programmes; (f) post-experience programmes; (g) recreation and interest groups. Even when some common ground has been covered by the above categorisation, the fact remains that the edges of these categories are blurred in definition. The same words did not, and still often do not, refer in each country to exactly the same activities partly due to cultural difference but also to variations in both the experiences and personal and educational philosophies of the individuals. Here, it will be worth mentioning that variation comparative education are not so wide, so complicating and so divided as are in the systems of adult education. It is perhaps why that, at times, it lead to incorret type of thinking that there can be no studies like comparative adult education.

In most communities there are in general the following areas of adult learning and teaching: (a) the remedial scholastic education; (b) vocational education related to many different levels of employment from craft to work-skills; (c) individual, development and development of the community, but normally unrelated to qualifications or, often, to more formal study; (d) fundamental/basic education, including literacy. Titmus in a study of adult education, in Europe, suggests as suitable categories 'according' to purpose' the four types (a) second-chance education, (b) vocational education, (c) role education, (d) personal enrichment education.

However, it seems that at least for out of school adult education, there is a lot of confusion about dates, time, activities, organisatons in defining different types of adult education programmes in different countries, continents

and areas. As such none of these definitions fits in the study of comparative study, at least at cross-cultural level. Here one is to be cautious that even when such a divemification is there, there is a lot for different countries to learn to gain wisdom and experience from the experimentation and successes of other nations and as such. Comparative studies will have to be conducted, no doubt, in some different ways' with different books and with different objectives. For example India is to learn a lot from the population control programme of China, if she is to lead a comfortable life and solve our population problem. How is it that chin? who is facing even more accute problem on this fronts is in a position to solve her problems through the adoption of 'one child family,' while India is not in a position to be a success in 'two child family' programme? Also that what India can learn from it.

A more functional classification might be one which linked purposes of the education to some extent, both with content and with approach to the Intended learner. This should provide for comparison of both wider and more evenly representative sectors of activity, of the relative importance attached to each, and of the contrasts in cultural interpretations of each sector. In order to prepare a list of programmes of adult education in such a way that it could be discussed in cross-cultural perspective. Harris has given a list of the following nine activities, which have further been catagorical in four different categories.

1. Primary schooling and fundamental education for the adults and the unschooled, including much literacy teaching, mainly part-time formal study for adults. It is remedial scholastic type. It mostly exists in developing countries.
2. Part-time secondary level and higher education certification up to university level. It is remedial scholastic

type. It exists in comparatively developed and advanced nations.

3. Education and instruction in technical and all levels of vocational subjects, including professional refresher courses; frequently short-term or part-time study. It is vocational in character. This problem is apparent in most of the modern societies. With the development in the old machines soon become obsolete and are to be replaced by new machines for which the workers are to be trained. This problem exists in almost all modern societies and is part of the process of modernisation. This is essential from the point of view of change of occupations by the workmen for which new training needs to be provided and it is mostly done while one is on the job.
4. Community development (understood as learning through self-planning and self-help), animation, including aspects of literacy teaching, where this is primarily participatory though with outside stimulation. It can be called community education.
5. Support services for in formal group activity, clubs, societies, voluntary and participatory organizations, community action, co-operative movements, trade unions, churches, political parties. It is also community type education. It is done through non-formal and informal techniques of education.
6. Directed education of the public mass-media, such as exhibitions, posters, films shows, and the broadcast services, health and safety. It can also be termed as community education. This is more profitably used through non-formal methodology of education for adults.
7. Recreational (rather than pure entertainment) and leisure-time studies, including crafts, languages, and

sports (physical and intellectual). Even when there are recreational are education also.

8. Liberal and cultural activities and studies, non-vocational and non-examinable, relating to an understanding of 'man and society,' dance, music, tradition. It can be called humanistic education. It helps in the fuller development of personality of the adults.
9. Provision to encourage and to assist motivated self-study and self-development e.g. libraries, some home study activity centres. It is of cultural aspect. It clarifies the concepts and help in around development of the personality.

3.2. Some Other Patterns (U.K.)

It is generally found in almost all the countries of the world adult training and education i.e. private and public, or as voluntary and statutory. Only recently government authority, in the modern nation-state, has recognised responsibility for education, amongst its welfare duties. The duties have been laid on them by legislation relating to education. It is mistaken to assume that a study of educational legislation can always give anyone an accurate or even a meaningful picture of adult educational provision as at times it makes little reference to any department of education. Most of the legislation have come up only after 1950 in Europe. The Scandinavian countries have, however, for long been noted for their many laws on the education of adults. In the United Kindom, there has mostly been long established and extensive activity in such education, but with only a very limited number of national laws explicitly pronouncing on this activity. Due to the traditions of 'Non-conformist' individualism and the British readiness to submit to the discipline of committee procedure, there had been almost 150 years of organized adult education in Britain, in one form or another before the government authorities assum-

ed even limited responsibility for it. The early organizers were all private and voluntary. Much of the activity was self-directed by the adult learners, initially motivated by religious/humanist on the one hand and political/economic on the other due to nineteenth and twentieth century, industrialization of Britain and its spectacular development as the focus of an urban industrial trading community on a world-wide scale. The result of these and of other contrasting pressures and preoccupations, both internal and external, has been a pattern of provision today still primarily local-based and non-statutory even when increasingly dependent financially on central government, with only limited central control direction. The legislation has been permissive and supportive, rather than directive. The following acts have been passed by the British Government :

1. 1944 Education Act followed by circulars and instruction.
2. Education Act of 1975 sanctioned more grants for certain adult education student from L.E.A.'s.
3. Employment and Training Act of 1973 sanctioned training grants for employment in industry.
4. The Health and Safety Act of 1974, the Employment Protection Act 1975 and the Education Regulation Act 1976 further strengthened the paid education leave and industrial training study of the workers.

With a well-organized occupational lobby for adult education, stimulated mainly by university men and women, and also by a non party grouping which is often self-identified as the 'labour movement', the consensus of both public and official opinion has for long been favourable. This opinion has been agreed that adult education was at least desirable with a qualified support, even if not always on the highest level of priority.

In the words of Harris, "For what is defined as (vocational) 'training' (sometimes in Britain officially distinguished from 'education') there are two grant-providing bodies, the Industrial Training Boards (as above) and the Training Services Division (of the Manpower Services Commission). Both are composed of representatives nominated variously by employers, employees and the Minister. For initial 'technical education' and for the whole wider field of 'further education' (non-formed) the responsibility is given to elected local authorities. These local government authorities are directed either to 'provide or to ensure the provision by other agencies public private) of adequate facilities."

Central government gives financial aid granted to local government authorities and private organizations. Local government makes the major provision for most levels of technical and other vocational education.

The following pattern is common :

1. Many local authorities also make (on their own decision) a considerable provision for general education, mainly in the category of recreational/individual development, where the clientele are accustomed to pay moderate fee.
2. The category of remedial/second-chance/refresher education is provided mainly by independent voluntary or commercial agencies, though some contribution is made by local, and sometimes central government.
3. Social and community or civic education is left primarily to the voluntary agencies. The central government sees itself perhaps as being in a paternalistic role, as potential supporter for such desirable and desired self-help efforts made by non-government providers.

(b) Types of Agency

Titmus says that there are four major categories of providing agency in Britain :

1. The government, with central departments and LEASs. The former include the Department of Education and Science, the Department of Employment and other Ministries which cover training of employees, health education, prison education service and agricultural counselling. In most cases adult educational provision is made through the local LEAS or private agencies, public service committees like libraries, committee. Partly the LEA obligations can be met, and are being met at their own discretion by financial grants (with few conditions attached) both local universities and selected private organisations.
2. The statutory authorities, established by law are :
 - (a) L.E.A.'s.
 - (b) Public Service Committees.
 - (c) British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) in collaboration with Open Universities and Extension Education or Continuing Education Departments of the Universities).
3. The private organizations making profits either through selling educational services or else through providing education as a part of their own organizational system. Such firms providing education and training for their employees, and organizations 'trading' in education by classes or by correspondence etc.
4. The private and voluntary organizations both large and small, with education either as their main function or as an implicit or an expressed function supporting social, economic, religious or political

purposes i.e. the churches the trade unions, the co-operative movement and the political parties and Workers' Educational Association.

Importance in Britain, the central government leaves the major responsibility to the private organizations and to the elected local authorities. There is close and voluntary co-operation between these three sectors. The Adults Literacy Resources Agency (ALRA) received central finance grants, but worked with the local authorities, with the statutory BBC, and a number of voluntary organizations. Similar is true, with USA, France and Denmark, Among these three the government attitude shows variation from a reluctance to 'interfere in' or to support private educational activities on the one hand, to generous readiness to undernatively, a national pattern can place much stress on central provision, supervision and control. A strict ideological interpretation has led to the control of all and every educational gathering, public or private, not specifically authorised by law or regulation. In between these two contrasting concepts lie many national patterns in countries where scarcity of private and public resources available for any form of adult education, and the extreme urgency of national development needs, economic, social or political, seem to have stimulated a pattern of extensive government and statutory provision. This has often been accompanied by only limited commercial provision), and by small but varying degrees of private non-commercial provision.

U.S.A., Malaysia and Israel are all countries with population gathered by intensive modern immigration. They are countries of mixed race and culture with the serious problem of nationhood. There are extreme differences between them i.e. climate, religious philosophy, and population. The USA is almost continental in size and has a population of nearly 200 million peoples mainly

European and Christian, with large material resources, and is strategically safely placed between two oceans. Malaysia, spread across the narrow South-East Asian peninsular, is small with a population of approximately 12 million; official Malay and Muslim, but with an immigrant majority of mainly Christian, Chinese and Hindu Tamil Indians. It has ancient tradition of culture (successively Brahmin, Buddhist and Muslim) and considerable mineral and agricultural wealth. Israel, even smaller and a population of only 3 million, mainly immigrant in origin and Jewish by race (the dominant motivation for immigration) and Judaic by religion. It has the most ancient historical traditions and culture.

Israel, has experienced and encouraged the most recent immigration and has become a modern state, as a result of a continuing state of war. Its wealth has been the high morale and industry of its own people and the support of Jewish people outside its borders. Malaysia, became federated independent in 1963, experienced 200 years of British protection and indirect rule, and tolerated immigration from India and China, while Malaysia shared common language and religion with their third large neighbour, Indonesia. The USA, however, has had to cope with massive and continuing immigration ever since the independence, 200 years ago.

In the USA, most of the areas of adult education have been controlled by private organization. These organisations have been both voluntary and commercial, both private trusts and associations with wide popular membership. There have been three important exceptions, with their wide range of extension activities in the fields of (higher) remedial, vocational and civic or personal development education. The second is the government-initiated and supported institutions which have probably, the largest clientele of adult learners in any single group

of institutions in the country. Co-operative Extension Service (Agricultural extension) with federal, state and country government is well established. The third is even-public schools with adult classes teaching immigrants literacy in English, the American traditions, civic principles and history.

In Malaysia the government ministries, controlled most of the education for adults. The Ministry of National and Rural Development, with its community development and adult education divisions, sponsors much of the work with illiteracy, home economics, language teaching and general education. The Department of National Unity, encourages good inter-communal relations. The Ministry of Culture-Youth-and-Sport is concerned with communal relations among youth. The Ministries of Labour and of Agriculture-and-Co-operatives are active primarily with vocational education. The statutory bodies, the institution known as MARA concentrates on industrial and technical training. The Malaysian Railways provided all training for the key state enterprise. The universities failed to become involved with much extension work amongst the general population, due partly to communal tensions language difficulties. Malayu Bahasi is the only language of education and government. English is the convenient language of education and commerce, both for external and internal purposes. Private organizations nevertheless play an important part in the area of remedial (scholastic) education and citizenship education.

In Israel there has been an active participation by many Jewish citizens in the education of all adults. The main government posture is one of support for statutory and private organizations, with much private voluntary effort and finance. Army is a major instrument for official literacy teaching and fundamental education, both for its members and for the general population. The significant

educational institutions are the university, the trade union council, the judaic synagogue and the different immigrant-reception institutions. The kibbutz is self supporting 'pioneer' community, an important institution for social education.

3.3. Factors Influencing Adult Education

A pattern of provision for adult education may be said to arise in any community, from a number of different factors, which we are considering here. These might be listed loosely as the traditional forms, the adult needs and articulated demands and the external influences and contacts. In the words of Harris,

"The traditional forms could domestrate an almost infinite variety in ancient history, religion, established ways of life, and much else. Each society is unique in its own forms and whereas in the case of many Commonwealth countries, the nation-state was an amalgam of several 'societies' trying to develop one national consciousness, the complexity is intensified. However, the adult needs and articulated demands, and also the effect of external influences on the newer developing Commonwealth countries probably have much in common and these can be considered more fully. We could add other factors, such as the influence of geographical and economic conditions, where the differences again may be wide not only from region, but sometimes even within a region. Yet another factor may be the influence of individuals, not only of local nationals, who may at some point in time have made a contribution to new develpment at a formative stage.

This group of factors arises from the needs of individuals in a community, from the needs of the community as a whole, and from the needs of a third area, that of the needs of organizations and institution which promote adult education as a necessary part of their own

development. These requirements of these three were not always, or even usually, identical.

These factors determine the pattern of education. In an under developed society the need might be for most people to read simple notices and to understand simple instructions in print. In an ancient Indian society or in British India, the need for many was to be able to put his signatures and a line of distinction was drawn between one who was illiterate and also who one could put his signatures, may be in refined language. In an industrial society the need was to change living habit to meet the relatively new condition of sprawling large town and city suburbs. There was the necessity for people in such countries to learn to use safely, economically and efficiently the new, expensive machines and the scarce technical equipment. At the other end of the educational scale there was a need for many civil servants to develop a new efficiency and a different scale of personal values, and for professional workers to refresh their skills and to keep their up-to-date, in a community where colleagues are scattered and facilities were often scarce. In the age of cybernetics, a very highly sophisticated type of education is needed so that the knowledge of the experts is kept up-to-date. They need refresher courses, workshops, seminars, in service trainings and to be kept abreast with the innovations for which adult education programme is a must.

Every community will develop its own wishes and express them articulately through its own institutions, clubs, unions and other groups. These articulated demands may be quite different in different countries and the kind of demands expressed will be selected and shaped by their groupings pull on. In one country this may be church or a trade union, are a tribal structure which expresses the demand. In another it will be a particular kind of

political party, or a co-operative or a market women's association. Some of these groups will be interested in educational activities for the community as a whole, while others will limit their interest in this sphere only to members and potential members of a group.

3.4 Some Patterns of Adult Education

1. There is usually no directed or overall planned 'system' of such education, and the looser term pattern is, therefore, much preferable.
2. The trend is to increase the already very prominent government sector in this field.
3. There is nevertheless a surviving counter-trend to preserve or extend in some form or other, an element of both popular participation and democratic control.
4. There is frequently a strong element of semi-independent contribution to educational provision often from private industry.
5. The special position of the English universities in post-school education is strongly reflected in most, if not all, of these countries.
6. The phrase 'community development' and particular interpretation of this concept of community participation are echoed in many of countries.
7. The provision of adult education through Christian church mission and other religious institutions is relatively limited to-day in all these countries.
8. The indigenous voluntary organizations have been, in many cases, slow to take up this role. In some cases the first impression is that voluntary organizations are very few in this field of activity.
9. In the absence of a vigorous and 'Western' style local town democracy with independent tax-

income; there is only very limited local authority sponsorship of adult education.

3.5 Important Adult Institutions Volkshochschule and Volkshogeschool

Many countries of the world have changed the folk high school, to their convenience. They have often been inspired by certain features and have rejected others as inconvenient or less important. The most notable examples, where it has been developed as the mainstay of the popular adult education movement and accepted as its most articulate spokesman, have been in Germany and Austria. The Volkshochschulen' (V. H. S.) movements in both countries date from the twentieth century (1918), and have survived periods of fierce official repression or opposition. The 'Heim Volkshochulen' are closer to the full Scandinavian tradition of residence and of 'liberal' studies. The larger national association, the Volkshochschulen, developed as non-residential, mainly urban and evening centres. They were initiated and supported both by the municipalities and by independent associations, trade unions, political parties and religious parties and served the current local demand for adult education, particularly by the industrial workers. This meant a provision of lecture courses, hobby and cultural courses, but also typewriting, book keeping and other vocational skills. 'Education for common citizenship'. Of the residential Heim Volkshochschulen there are less than fifty, all organizing courses of from six days to three weeks. The main concepts accepted from Scandinavia seem to have been the importance of civic and cultural education without necessary insistence on formal qualification. There is also some stress on the rich German musical and literary culture, fostered by the wealthy municipal trading guilds since mediaeval times. Volkshochschulen having been established by many different private and independent

organizations to serve the general idea of an 'education for common citizenship' (with a variety of interpretations regarding citizenship) the German movement found itself persuaded into filling a vacuum of adult educational provision by courses and teaching methods far removed, in some cases, from the philosophy of Grundtvig. What the V.H.S. did succeed in preserving or reviving, however, was a sense of democratic independence in adult education, from mere official dictation or direction.

There is also a strong attraction in the Dutch V. H. S. towards international contacts and meetings, with the strong movements in Scandinavia and Germany, with a pan-European ideal, and also with word inter-cultural interest. Fourteen Dutch V.H.S. and one each in French, in Belgium and in Surinam (South America) are associated in the Netherlands V.H.S., and links are sought with the English, French and Italian residential education centres. Some of this international stimulus arises undoubtedly from the presence of the office for the European Bureau of adult education in the Netherlands, at Amersfoort.

Universytet ludowy, Vidyapeeth and Awudome

The two most striking Folk High School contacts outside Europe are the Awudome residential college, in a rural town in Ghana, Africa, and the Mysore 'vidyapeeth' centres in rural Mysore, India. The former was in fact stimulated by the, then, English staff of the Extra Mural department at the Gold Coast University—college, but was given a Scandinavian slant by later Danish ex-patriot staff. The college was built by local village voluntary labour and has been used variously by the university and the government, but primarily for young-adult courses. The Vidyapeeth supported by the Mysore state government, is dedicated to developing young adult village leaders intended for social leadership in the rural farming areas,

and like the Northern European models combines agricultural training with cultural and general education in the Kannada language. At present there are quite a few such Vidyapeeths which are well installed. The inspiration is directly from both Gandhi and Grundtvig, both of whom are usually honoured on the Vidyapeeth wall, and there is an explicit link with the Danish F.H.S. centres in Europe. The name 'Vidyapeeth' seems in India to have been since used also for a variety of other adult education centres elsewhere, centres sometimes closer to the Rural District Institutes than to the F.H.S. but still owing a little to the Grundtvig concepts.

The Folk High School or People's College is distinguished by a philosophy of education, which lays special stress on community attitudes and on a development of the spirit, rather than the scientific rationalism, of the human personality. From its methods and practices each of a number of national communities have been able to draw something of significant value to help it meet current social and political crises. The circumstances of different historical nature and of the community temper or philosophy seem to have been instrumental in dictating which part of the Grundtvig—Kold message have been adopted. In nearly every instance both the residential education and the group-sharing have constituted essential factors in the institution. In most cases the approach has constituted a particular attraction because of its setting in a rural environment and of its possibilities as an ingredient in the solution of socio-economic problems. It is one further demonstration of the practical power of ideas and of idealism in harnessing individual and community motivation and potential.

3.6 The University and Adult Education

The English pattern of university adult education i.e. university extension, was developed originally from

Cambridge University in 1873. The university had agreed, after petitioning from a Mechanics' Institute, a Co-operative Society Education Group, and a Northern Women's Council, to members of university staff, providing regular lecture courses in 'higher studies' on a peripatetic basis to non-university adults in organized educational groups and in various non-university towns. By 1914, there appear to have been as many as 478 Extension Centres in touch with either Cambridge, Oxford or London universities. The second British tradition was that of the 'working class labour' movement, which developed the Workers' Educational Association (WEA) (initially as the 'Association for the Higher Education of the Workingmen'). In Britain it led eventually to the establishment of a number of new universities, granting degrees in their own right, growing directly at that time from the extension centres in a few major cities. In Britain and the USA it led further to a special type of 'extension' work for 'higher' professional and 'advanced' vocational objectives, and therefore for new varieties of university examination and of university qualification, for new kinds of adult students (professional workers in the English sense), and sometimes even to new 'internal' university departments and new examination subjects for younger full-time undergraduates. In those cases the development had come full circle and had enriched university 'internal' activity. Within the British universities new kind of department, the Extra Mural Department, were established for extension education. The university was responding to a demand from outside the university and from the national community, not from the government.

The 'working-class-labour' movement had developed also many different expressions of 'advanced' education other than work within or with the university i. e. London Working Men's College, Ruskin College and the National

Council of Labour Colleges. The Britishers have three distinct features :

(a) **University Qualifications** : It might be called (for lack of a clearer term) 'university expansion (adult)'. This is an opening up, to part-time working adults, of study for traditional qualification and university degrees, identical or equivalent to the normal degrees. In such cases university degrees are awarded to external candidates.

(b) **The University Standard** : The older tradition of 'extra mural studies', which strictly speaking is the provision of course at a university level of study and effort, but without necessarily either examination or qualification, these again being intended for part time adults.

(c) **University Activities** : It was much wider in its methods, its purposes and its standards of learning and would include both courses and many other activities, the latter covering such events as exhibitions of a specialist nature conferences, open lectures, research enquiries or practical projects. This might be described by use of the potentially very general term 'university extension'.

All three, expansion, extra-mural and extension, would overlap at many points, but they would tend to aim at a somewhat different 'target clientele'. The first would be intended to serve an intellectual elite. The second would be intended also for the advanced education of a social and political group capable of leadership through experience and mature position in a democratic society. At times, it is called 'leadership training'. The third would be serving an almost infinitely wide variety of social group, from the farmer to the urban housewife and from the professional or the specialist to those with no particular distinction

beyond living in a particular geographical region, depending on the selected project. This would mean university extension in the sense only of the university's involvement in an activity selected by the university as appropriate. The second, university extra-mural 'longer' courses, is still the main university service to adults in Britain. The third strand, extension activities, includes many short courses and large meetings, which were in fact part of the earliest programmes of nineteenth-century extension centres, but this has also increasingly been involved in special vocational and non-vocational certificates, diplomas and activities outside the range of the longer government grant-aided courses.

The second and third varieties of university adult education were under the administration and academic direction of a particular type of university department, the 'Extra Mural' department (to serve adults 'outside the university's.) The form of organization in the departments involved a substantial proportion of full-time academic staff, being engaged full-time both in organizing and in teaching adult classes, and also allocated in many cases to geographical area of population (countries and regions) as resident tutors.' While overall departmental policy would be guided by a departmental head, and would in many cases bear his substantial imprint, policy was inevitably a departmental team creation, with necessarily an area responsibility and initiative, the many local communities. He, or she, represented the communities to the university, and the university to the communities. It was this organization much more than the more details of the course curriculum, which recommended the British pattern of university adult education.

The British extra mural department was in fact always much more than a mere 'administrative agency', and the

'resident tutor' or 'organizing-tutor' was always more than a 'full-time teacher'

The typical British department, however, still adopts the 'extra mural' courses approach, but the extra mural pattern, because of its decentralized structure, its flexibility, and its academic (rather than administrative) direction has evolved, during the 1960s and 1970s in Britain, further in the direction of extension activities.

Problems in University Adult Education

There is the difficulty of determining, relevant to 'extra mural courses', the level of university teaching standards and learning standards and of suitable teaching methods where there is no convenient examination assessment of the learning achieved. However, wherever the standard is not easy either to assess or to achieve, the temptation for the university teacher is to accept the ideal but to practise the reality. This possibly means lower standards of written work following the usually accepted pattern of university tutorial studies.

At the level of 'extension activity' the problem is one of determining the 'appropriateness' of university staff becoming involved in this activity instead of less experienced and less highly-trained staff conducting this work. This must depend in part on the nature of the community served, on the community's level of formal education, on the urgency of expressed needs, and on the presence or absence of alternative adult education services.

None of the problems above, in the modern climate of egalitarian democracy, seemed to many communities powerful enough to justify any abandonment of the case for the university to come down its 'ivory tower' of research and professional teaching to 'market-place' of society, and to share something of its tools of knowledge and power—unless (of course) the quality, itself, of research

and of professional teaching were to suffer. Many, within the university have argued, moreover, that both the research and the internal teaching have benefited greatly from the extension of activities and from the contact with the 'real' community, particularly where (as both in industrial and less-sophisticated societies to-day) the community itself is changing and the university must always be keenly aware of this social change. What is certain is that the attraction of a philosophy which favoured 'University Extension Activities' has resulted since 1950's in a change not only of extension emphasis from courses of activities, but of departmental name in many of the former Extra Mural Departments (EMD's). In Britain there were in 1961, Six 'Departments of Adult Education' to twenty labelled as Extra Mural Departments. By 1978, there were 40 EMD's, but seven departments of adult education, and also nine other centres 'Institutes or 'Departments of Continuing Education', Extension Studies, Educational Studies', 'External Studies', or 'Extra Mural and Adult Education Studies.' The titles or the change of title, are significantly in that they reflect different emphasis in policy of institutional independence from tradition, Changes in title to institutes or centres have sometimes accompanied the newer stress on teacher training by correspondence, on research and experiments in literacy teaching of specific political or socio-ideology, and on training or adult education officer to suppliment the more purely functional training undertaken by government departments.

Factors Influencing Adult Education

4.1 Importance :

Even when it is a fact that there are so many factors which affect the educational system of a country, the reality remains that almost all these factors affect the adult education of that country too. However, in different countries these factors of play their role in different ways at different times. It is not always that the same factor is of equal importance in any country at all times. It is thus difficult to prepare a list of all such factors in order of priority. Dr. Friesen provides one clue in Exeter report to

resolve this dilemma. He comments that some factors are more important than others for a given country or for a particular region. However, all the factors such as history, geography, economics, population structure, politics, social, culture, religion or international relations need at least to be considered for examination, in getting a clear cut picture of the adult education of any country. In actual practice only some of these may be worth analysis at a given time and situation, and others may only be of relative importance to an adult education pattern. Only a careful selection of factors will demand special attention as being of real importance in shaping of patterns in each case. Some importance factors could be :

- Religious Factors—Netherlands, Iran, Latin America
- Geography or Climate—Scandinavian, Sudan, Australia
- Community Philosophy—most important for all.

We will discuss only three factors.

4.2 Historical Impact :

One of the important factor which affects the adult education programme of any country, is History. It can mean distinct forms of influence. The first in relation to national community, is the general historical account—much of which may be comparatively irrelevant to the contemporary educational scene. The second is the story of adult education and its institutions interpreted and analysed as a part of the social history. In the words of Carlson, "The role of any historian is to study the changes that take place over a period of time and to explain these changes". This is more relevant to the second aspect than the first, and can be related to changing impact of an educational institution on a community.

Distinct from this aspect is the general impact of history i.e. events, trends and personalities, on community attitudes. National and community attitudes are often

unpredictable and apparently illogical and to be identified only through distinct sight. It may sometimes be more apparent to outside observer who may, of course misinterpret the motivation. It does appear in some communities in particular that events and developments in past has given rise to unique local attitudes and to unusual reaction to adult education, provisions as is the case with Israel, France, Poland or Netherlands.

U S A : A Case Study :

The 200-year-old history of the USA has been recorded and analysed so frequently and skilfully that it is difficult to appreciate the relative ignorance of most 'foreigners' as to its more significant facts, or to summarize these. Today, this country of 180 million people presents a unique study of varied activities, self-improvement and experimental inventiveness, in adult education. It grows out of the very nature of its history, its society and its folk ideals. As a federal republic, spread across a large continent, it is possible to find attempted somewhere in the country almost every kind of non-formal education. Many of these kinds have not flourished or have been completely recreated in an American version to suit the local and specialized environment. Benjamin Franklin who was once suggested a suitable candidate for an American 'patron saint of adult education', wrote and persisted his ideas as far back as the eighteen century. By 1700 there were already a quarter million English people in the Atlantic colonies. Freed from the limitations of English traditionalism, American adult education has been a supreme example of the development of a decenralized, liberal and 'customer-oriented' pattern of provision. This could be described as a 'shop-counter pattern of education as operated in a relatively affluent, resourceful and individualist community and in a technological and industrialized age. According to Blakely even now, 'adult education is

the largest and the fastest growing segment of American education'.

Out of a wide choice of basic factors influencing American culture, three might be selected as having made a formative and significant contribution to the education of adults. They appear to have been due to three historical developments or events in the country's past i.e: continuing immigration into the USA (from the seventeenth century) the Declaration of Independence (1783), and the American/individual pioneer westward drive to the Pacific ocean (in the nineteenth century). The first development was that the people from different European countries migrated to settle in U.S.A. They carried with them their own customs, traditions and cultures to this new world. The second was the birth of a democratic state after successful revolutionary war which was fought against the Britishers. It made them nationalists for the U.S.A. even when they had come from different nationalities and cultures. The third was the though, unregimented opening up of a huge undeveloped continent, the continuous search for freedom from government restriction, and the creation of a folklore of personal effort and heroic initiative. In the words of Harris, "The basic factors which developed as a result were, respectively, the 'mixing bowl' of cultures and of races, the optimistic faith in 'the common man' and the hard-headed materialist standards of achievement and reward for personal effort. Some of the contradictions in American community history—for example, idealism and self-seeking materialism, individualism and social conformity, and altruist interest and ruthlessness—are reflected in its non-formal education. Perhaps behind all this is a persistence of stubborn Christian values and of self-examination, a legacy from the folklore of the fugitives from Christian religious intolerance in Europe".

It is difficult now to recall the huge scale and

persistence of American immigration and of its internal geographical expansion over recent centuries. The newcomers have been lured and fascinated by the 'American dream' of freedom. In Jefferson's words, "Life better, richer and fuller for every man, opportunity according to ability and achievement." The fact remains that great majority of these were uneducated, unskilled and non-English speaking. In addition, a quite different educational problem was set by the abolition of slavery after the bitter Civil War in 1865, virtually a folk immigration of another nature. This again was a huge problem to be tackled with the tool of adult education. Then, that war had left its own legacy of 1 million American military deaths and both physical and social scars of fratricidal struggle. Education had to meet these challenges under a federal system where both federal and state democratic governments were always open to the suspicion, amongst the people.

Adult Educational Comparisons : The patterns which have developed from these very different historical bases can be compared from a number of angles, (1) The structure of legal and practical responsibility and of effective decision-making. (2) There are the actual institutions and activities found in each society and the co-relationship and co-operation between them. (3) There are those institutions which stand out in each society as being of particular significance and important or particularly effective. (4) There are the apparent objectives of the education, formal or non-formal, found within the national society.

It was Hall who laid down as one of his important guidelines on comparison that 'functional comparisons should not normally be attempted unless the phenomena to be compared are as similar as possible'. Such a

restriction would eliminate from comparative enquiry many of the most important questions arising from national studies, however one defined 'similar phenomena' or 'the same stage' of development, economic, industrial or social, or 'reference data'. These are all communities each with a national history, people held together by common traditions, experiences, languages, laws and system of communication, occupation, administration, personal relationships and foreign differentiation. Within a shrinking world society they are each distinguished from other national communities in ways which have produced individual patterns of education in response to a grouping of social stimuli amongst which history is an important factor. The similarities in phenomena relevant to comparison are far wider, we can postulate than might be apparent on the external facts of institutions and attitudes—perhaps because they are human communities, and human individuals share an observably large area of common feelings and reactions.

4.3 Politics and Adult Education :

For quite longer time, politics and education and economic system and education have been related with each other. Now, throughout the world, this fact has been quite well recognised and appreciated. In newly independent states, recently created countries and, also, most nations seeking radical social change after war, economic depression or revolution, have quickly been faced by the intimate relationship between education and the political system. Economic and political change has been seen to entail major changes in community education and attitude, but as an urgent strategy for a purpose rather than as a mere consequence of change. This, it was not only a matter of 'the relationship between formal education and the 'new political elite', but the planing of education for the adult contemporary community.

Education and Public Affairs : The words 'political education' for some people carries persuasive propaganda with orchestrated publicity, edited factual content and accusations of distortion or untruth. Is this education in any accepted sense? If it is, on the one hand, understood simply as form of 'education in public affairs and in citizenship'. If on the other hand it is seen as the clarifying, for its own members, of the underlying assumptions and relationships on which every large national state must be founded, it can be recognised as a constituent and essential part of education in every national community. Coleman and King, both draw attention to the fact that in most countries some ideological teaching is a part of the formal education systems for the preparation of the young for joining adult community life. There is nothing necessarily undesirable about this socializing function of education for ensuring the continuity and stability of public community relationships and values.

King stresses that "ideology exists as a force in all thinking" i.e. schooling of youth. Sutton clarifies western preoccupation with religious, rather than political, ideology by recalling the early Church State struggle in many pre-modern states in Europe, where the priesthood had once been the teachers of society and the first guardians of knowledge. This was true of most of the Muslim countries where in 'Molwi' was considered to be the most learned man, having almost all types of knowledge and authorities. The parallels are seen to be close between political and religious 'education' but the fields and the circumstances of operation and the emphases are different. The practical impact of political systems on adult secular life is normally far more coercive and more immediate than that of religious patterns of belief and of practice. However, the fact remains that religious education has more lasting effect than political climate. It is perhaps why

that it is being increasingly observed and felt that throughout the world, in previously religious dominated societies, might be Christian or non-Christian, the loss of moral, ethical, and spiritual values have been so much that political climate has not been able to fill in the gap. In India, and particularly in Punjab amongst Sikhs, the religion and politics was combined by Guru Gobind Singh, It worked well. The reason was that first of all he cultivated the higher value system amongst Sikhs so much that later on politics could not corrupt them. Now, it is not working well as the political system is more stronger and generating than the religious system rebuilding the value system.

Education, both the formal and non-formal serves two functions which are distinct and can sometimes be in contradiction and conflicting. It is to serve the perceived interests of society and it will also serve the private interests of individuals. In the words of Harris, "Political education, civic education, religious education and the socializing aspects of any educational activity can possibly serve both functions, but the former function (serving society's interests) will be the particular concern and assumed responsibility of authority; also of all those who claim to interpret society's needs on behalf of other individuals. In his pragmatic study of 'Education and the Making of Modern Nation'. Sutton suggests that 'socialization' may be used as almost synonymous with the political function of 'education' and he distinguishes its three main tasks. These, he suggests, are a definition of membership and relationships (the way a particular society 'works'), the 'inculcation of ideas, symbols and disciplines' (including social attitudes and loyalties), and the 'differential instruction' in skills and knowledge to serve different levels of social status. Any educational activity may, and most probably will, serve more than one of these tasks, but 'civic education' will stress the first task and alternatively, various forms of propaganda may stress the

'inclucation' function. In adult political education, the major problem for the educators will be the lack of personal motivation to learn, or of interest in being taught in a particular manner, or outright scepticism of or opposition to the learning. It is the organized provision of whatever needs to be (must be) learned, in the judgement of those making the provision."

It remains a fact that most of the effective socializing agencies in any national community may operate outside any formal education system and also outside any recognized provision of adult education.

There would appear to be, at least three somewhat contrasting situations within which the political education of the adult, in whatever form, might be felt to assume importance. The first is that where a community or group of communities develop an independent national identity for the first time. In such cases there seems often to be some confusion of thought amongst both observers and participants between economic development and political development, and a consequent and justifiable alarm regarding 'neo-colonialism'. The second is where a fully established national community is undergoing a fundamental change of political identity and structure, possibly after a period of loss of independence or of war. The third is where there is relative stability and continuity.

Tanzanian experience "Ujamea" Tanzania, a new country of only approximately 15 millions, comprises a relatively large territory. With a population of almost entirely African ethnic origin and a common African (Kiswahili) lingua franca, there are yet 120 small ethnic groups. The population centres are widely scattered. 'Tanzania is a poor nation', measured in terms of GNP and suffers from a dry semi-desert central region. She became independence in 1962. About it Harris says, "One name in particular is associated closely with the political development and evolving ideology of Tanzania, that of President

Nyerere the former school teacher and graduate of Ruskin College Oxford. The focus has been on the relationship between education and 'development' with his insistence that 'development means development of people, and not of things'. The importance of adult education both for our country and for every individual cannot be over-emphasised. This was more than the teaching and acceptance of an ideology, but was seen as the logical consequence of the Tanzanian declaration of faith in 'Ujamaa'. This has been translated variously as 'African socialism' and as 'self-reliance' both in doing and thinking or in planning for action. Nyerere defines adult education, or (more precisely) defines its ideal, as 'learning about anything at all which can help us to understand the environment we live in' and to change that environment."

The key to a social and material dilemma was to be a change of social attitude. The principle challenges to be met were 'capitalist individualism' and 'colonial habits' of reliance on external initiatives and on foreign criteria of effective achievement. King has observed that 'many a revolution has a shape imposed on it by the very system it is trying to convert' and this peaceful revolution seems to have shaped itself successfully to its environment, even if the old village tradition has been idealized. He recognizes that such changes in attitude cannot be achieved by classes, speeches and exhortations alone, although this is in fact part of the pattern set in numerous training courses. By participation in decision-making organizations and in development projects he means the youth organizations, women's associations, parents' clubs and trade unions. He refers also to the use of mass media (mainly radio, press and posters) and the mobilizing of mass publicity campaigns, such as the national health campaign and in the 1971 'Elections campaign' (when 2,000 discussion group-leaders were trained). He admits that although 'political education' is a popular subject in adult

education classes, it is 'not easy to teach' to adults and that teachers in the subject 'get very involved.'

In the words of Harris, "From pre-independence years the country has been moderately well served by institutions, both voluntary and statutory, in adult education. Kivukoni College (originally based on the model Ruskin College), the University Department of Extra Mural Studies (later the Institute of Adult Education) and the Co-operative College were all established before or during the early 1960s. So also were a number of semi-religious (Christian) institutions such as the YMCA and YWCA with vocational post-primary, agricultural, secretarial and home economics colleges. Since 1970 the Institute, Kivukoni, and the Co-operative College have all been greatly expanded in resources and in their duties, and play an important part in para-statal organizations and with added political training courses. Apart from the close co-ordination between the work of the Ministries of National Education (including adult education), Agriculture, Health, Works and Labour, and Information, and the Prime Minister's Office, there is a strong National Adult Education Association (although weak at local level) and a National Advisory Council on Adult Education. The less obvious scaffolding, which provides in the field much of the initiative and local voluntary staffing behind this considerable adult education structure, is the political party, TANU and its local activists, particularly in the newly established Ujamaa villages".

China's Approach to Education : One name dominated China's dramatic modern changes, Mao Tse-tung, although the teachings of some others were acknowledged by Mao. Each country stressed the central importance, in resolving the national dilemma, of political and social factors and therefore of ideological education and learning. Mao was more concerned with the approach and methods of teaching and learning than with the

content. The 2,000/- years-old education system was to be transformed out of recognition and almost all of Mao Tse-tung's writings deal in one way or another with teaching'.

Harris says, "with no fewer than seven different languages and a hundred dialects with in the huge population, China's unique strength however, for thousands of years, has been its rich common written language of subtle ideographs independent of pronunciation. Its advantages have also included an industrious and inventive people with a traditional respect and aptitude for book-learning and written examination".

Adult Education in China : A mere outline of the institutions for adult education in China scarcely gives any realistic impression of the pattern of provision in the country. It is difficult in modern China to draw any firm distinctions between adult and children's education or between productive work and learning. The term 'chengren jiaoyu' (adult education) 'is rarely used in the People's Republic, Chambers suggest that perhaps 'spare-time equals adult education'. Where the 'full time' student is expected to spend one-third of his time as a production-worker and the worker is urged to study and to discuss, learning assumes new dimensions as an obligation and as a 'normal' social activity. The 'major learning activities' for adults which are listed as mutual and self-criticism, participation in decision-making and the opportunity for all for 'artistic creativity'. Harris puts it, "The main approaches in political education, as in other education, are the biquitous and earnest small-group discussion (in commune and street-meeting, workshop, store, farm and factory), the (do-it-yourself' mass-posterart campaigns (on many themes from culture to economics and from birth-control to political philosophy), the artistic displays and drilled demonstrations, and the drama and radio. Hsiang lists a variety of 'spare-time' and part-time,

or post-school institutions which it is, however, difficult to classify. These include the agricultural middle-schools, the Communist labour universities and the 'May-8 Cadre' amongst many others. Formal and informal apprenticeship is a widely-used learning relationship. The emphasis is certainly on skill-training and on production, and the responsibility for organizational patterns is laid on the local commune and the commune committees, even if the directive and the co-ordination comes from the provincial and national centres. The first objective is a classless society without elite groups, either social, intellectual or political, and the foundation is the belief in a co-operative wisdom of the ordinary people. This may conflict with the objective of increasing production. The motivation for individual learning of all kinds is expected to come from willing self-preparation for solving community problems. The keynote has undoubtedly been discipline, and the right interpretation and application of the accepted Maoist principles. Within these parameters the controversy has been fierce and open, all the can participate".

In China, the channels of national administration and communication seem to have been the Party and the Army. Locally the basis of authority has been the 'People', identified as a co-operation between three elements: the workers, the peasants and the soldiers. In practice this seems to have meant for centralization but a large variety of different sponsors and providers, ranging from co-operative committees to industrial production units, and from local elected councils to farm communes. It has reportedly meant very effective informal learning (with high motivation), but also meant anxieties about much less effective and 'old fashioned' teaching methods in formal education and in technical training. Such an immense and radical change of direction in community attitudes and organization could probably have taken place only in a

self-sufficient 'world' such as China with both a geographical security and a long-established cultural self-confidence and containment either to refute or to transform threats of cultural diffusion from a 'barbarian' foreign world. There is still much of her traditional culture beneath her modern transformation in spite of her repudiation of her own past attitudes.

Scandinavian Democracy and Political Education :

In Denmark, as one example amongst many others, there is little official pressure for, or official bias in, political education, however defined, and the range of permitted public discussion is almost unlimited. Any control, even minimal, over the scope of discussion is itself the immediate focus of community protest irrespective of controversy, with appeal to a legal system supreme over immediate government views. The organization of political education is a closely defended civic right exercised both by individuals and by private non-statutory organizations and institutions. The channels of such education are the public media, daily press, periodicals, pamphlets, radio and television, posters, demonstrations, public meetings and open private discussion. There are also many adult education organizations committed either to encourage general public consciousness and participation in community issues, or to persuade others to specific interpretations of society. Where the real differences lie between national approaches to political education in this type of democratic state, it is over the extent and need for state intervention in, or support for, the equality and freedom of political discussion.

Denmark is of course a relatively small country, with a population of between 5 and 6 millions and a limited area of (entirely peninsular) mainland, reputedly a thousand islands, and ruled under a constitutional monarch. With very modest national resources (without minerals,

coal or oil) but a productive soil, it has developed one of the highest standards of living in Western Europe, and a sophisticated cultural, industrial and agricultural background. It has been noted for its early development of an adult educational tradition, from the mid-nineteenth century, and its intensive system of private co operative agriculture. It is notable also for its early recognition of political implications and aims involved in adult education. Two of the strongest motivations behind this educational tradition in its earliest days have been political, namely the encouragement of an agricultural community to be conscious of democratic self-expression, and the establishment of a national cultural 'folk' identity (against the threat, then, of German cultural imperialism). Historically it has been relevant that Denmark has a community largely homogeneous in race, religion and language, and has shared in a proud Viking tradition dating from the ninth century.

It has a highly-developed national educational system, it is claimed that four-fifths, by volume, of its socio-cultural (non-vocational) education of adults (sometimes defined in English terms as 'liberal education') is organised not by the state but by voluntary organizations or by private citizens. The main role of the state is support (legally, financially, and in other ways) with only minimal controls, left primarily under the protection of national councils of representatives from the organizations themselves. The EBAE Director names ten national 'Study Organizations' (a familiar general pattern also in all five Scandinavian countries) who receive generous state grants towards specified costs, recurrent and capital, of their organizing of study groups. Of the ten organizations, five in Denmark are sponsored by political party groupings one by the Churches, and two others by women's associations and the farmers' associations respectively.

Harris holds the opinion, "The three universities and the seventy or eighty local adult-education committees, the folk colleges and their national secretariat, the trade unions through their education committees, the Libraries, Association, and the State Film Central are some of the larger bodies sharing the initiative and the authority in different adult educational activities. The total picture in political education and in adult education is not only one of widespread participation but of decentralization of control and of planning. The state-operators in the process and intervenes only where there is no effective private initiative, advised by the Adult Education Commission, the Danish Council for Adult Education, and the Adult Education Board (established in 1975)."

Educational Purpose and Political System :
Denmark, Tanzania and China depict three very disparate stages of political development. Their approaches to political education reflects this. The Danish state feels little need to stress and the process appears to be left to the society itself. Tanzania defines membership and relationships through a centralized expression, and stimulates participation by its national membership. China finds no need to define membership but an immense and urgent need to re-define relationships and to inculcate concepts which are in many ways strange to its ancient traditions. The Marxist emphasis, acknowledged by Chinese education, stresses politics and the innovative function of adult education, the 'struggle for the transformation of society' towards a community entirely free to elitist elements. The Danish emphasis, is far less explicit on particular political solutions. For them democratic education must be 'dynamic' and 'train for citizenship and independence', inferring individual freedom. One can easily understand that adult education can make a substantial contribution to social change. Alternatively it may be believed that

society is changing under pressures outside education, but that education can and should help the adult to adjust to that change. The fact, however remains that specific changes, often advocated by others, are faulty or likely to prove harmful to the community. The common experience in the three countries is that change of public attitude is less likely to be achieved through rational instruction alone than through changes in the social environment, in living habits and duties. It seems that 'education in public affairs and in citizenship', whether in part by persuasion or argument, is more likely to follow as a result of action and experience rather than by 'preaching' and by instruction alone. For some who do not believe in the educational power of political changes in political attitudes and loyalties, or indeed in social or religious attitudes, seem more liable to follow specific experiences of social living rather than either of 'social action' or of mere 'study'. However, the question remains debatable that political understanding follows, loyalty or political loyalty follows understanding.

4.4 Community Attitudes and Adult Education :

The concept of community attitude or community philosophy is difficult to define with precision. Many authorities and groups in any national community might claim with some justification to represent or interpret common and customary ways of thinking. It can be described as the Philosophy of the everyday citizen. However, the concept has been felt by many foreign observers to have practical substance and identity as they attempt to understand in depth the logic of a social way of life in culture other than their own. The community attitude can be described as the basic ingredient in cultural differences, of which more difference in culture, habits, appearance and relationship are only the symptom and cultural symbols. The most important obstacle which is faced by

the comparative analyst who tries to draw deductions from educational experience and the practice of one country to test against the problems of an other country.

Many may deny that any national community either has a philosophy with a consistent and distinctive character, apart from the philosophies of various groups, or that it merits consideration in practical policy can be argued, is the community. For them community is national authority. Teachers and organisers also put their share in it. The whole adult community of learners has also its share in it. Harris says, "A community philosophy may be criticized and challenged by the providers to a greater or less degree and can possibly even modified by the educators and providers themselves. It is undoubtedly subject to change over a period, but appears historically to demonstrate a persistence beyond mere calculation. Moreover, it will often seem to influence, both consciously and sub-consciously, the rational measures taken by the authorities themselves within the national culture".

The National Attitudes : A concept such as community philosophy, and its implications and limitations, can best be illustrated by practical case studies. Thailand is taken as the first of these studies, as one not untypical of many other countries, in size of population and extent of territory and with resources and opportunity to plan the use of adult education as an instrument of change of development. One can be in a position to understand their point of view from the study and involvement of their community than only from the effort of the government. If both are co-ordinated then the results can be a bit more fruitful.

Thailand, which can be translated as 'the land of the free', has far quite long never been in colonial status. She has a population of 45 millions, Buddhist religion, Thai language and national alphabet and ethnic unity dating

from the thirteenth century. It is of the size of France. The effective influences in this case have been Buddhist and ancient Brahmin rather than Islamic or Chinese. They have been British and (later, predominantly) American rather than French or post-Moghul Indian. Thailand commands also a fertile river delta with still 80 per cent rural and agricultural population. The economy is that of a free-enterprise community under government limitation and control, but trade (with cultural overtones) is now increasingly with Japan and with the USA to the east.

However, at the more basic level of community attitudes, and influencing the interpretation of policy of practice, is an alternative communal reassessment of, sometimes a resistance to official priorities. The intellectuals have sensed the introspective individualism of the old Thai Brahmin-Buddhist culture. There is overwhelming evidence of the continuing influence of Buddhist attitudes even in an age of declining religious observance. The modern drive to acquire material skills and rewards and the traditional respect for learning and for the teacher are therefore counter-balanced by other cultural values. Under Buddhist philosophy there is individual merit in serving others, but the service of the community is not an end in itself. The retreat from all human desires and cravings, the Hindu-Buddhist ideal, is a direct contradiction of the idea of action for material rewards for the future.

Two other features in Thai society are striking. One is the strength of superstitious practices, such as the ubiquitous Thai spirit-houses and animist shrines (from a Brahmin past) placed outside shop, office, hotel or private house. The second feature often mentioned as a Thai social concept is the attitude known as 'Sanook', the enjoying of the present, and living for the present rather than in the past and for the future. It is a taste of an

often quiet and aesthetic pleasure from the things which present themselves today, without planning and struggle. The Thai village recognizes three kinds of leader, in a local society where status is always important. These, significantly are the school-teacher, the senior monk in the village temple compound, and the locally-elected headman. The government official in the rural countryside, although not unwelcome, is likely to be an object of suspicion as an interruption of a traditional way of life.

Thai Official Aims : Harris says : "The 1960 'National Scheme for Education' placed no real emphasis on using education as a tool for development or for rural change. Five years later the second five-year plan, however, related expansion of education to equality of opportunity and to the 'harmonizing' of education with economic and social development objectives. By 1971 the third plan was stressing the need to lessen disparities between rural and urban incomes and between the agricultural and industrial sectors in general. There were also references to the importance of 'non-formal' approaches and to 'lifelong' education rather than an equating of education with schooling alone. The priorities were to be adult education for dropouts, the use of mass media in adult education for activities, the improvement and extension of library services, and programmes for rural youth and for youth training. Other phrases which officially were used, increasingly from this period onwards, related to the encouragement of 'critical' and rational thinking', of 'knowledge, attitudes and skills' for individuals as citizens, of initiative in 'problem solving', and to the preparation of 'a democratic society'. The commitment to the concept of 'non-formal education' was restated in a declaration of 1978".

From 1971, the Division of Adult Education was the Incharge of the programme. From a subsection of the large Department of General Education and grew to be a new

Department of Non-formal Education in 1979. The others in the field were prestigious Department of Educational Technology, several university departments of Education and Community Development (C. D.). In practice at least five Ministers i. e. Education, Interior, Agriculture, Health and the Prime Minister's Office, had responsibilities (and formal departments) in community adult education. Three separate departments within the Interior Ministry, namely Police, Information and 'C. D.', must be included in this government provision, which also shared ultimate responsibility for the educational activities of a large number of international and foreign welfare projects. Some non-government organizations such as Buddhist monasteries also put in their share in it. Seen from the District level the Senior District Officer had a loose authority over Ministry local district officers each responsible also to their central departments and each responsible for relevant duties in perhaps as many as 100 villages and 30,000 villagers. Seen from the villagers' view the village might have had as many as six committees supervising respectively development, land co-operatives, credit and marketing, irrigation, agricultural extension and the local 'reading centres'. There would also be the traditional village council, the temple committee and the school committee. The school teachers, often entirely untrained in adult education techniques, represented in fact the main or the only point of contact between official policy and the adult learner. In frontier areas, the 'broder police' too, were often involved in educational and welfare work. The teachers themselves included many who were, at their best enthusiastic and devoted animators and change-agents, sharing the life and interests of the rural community. In many cases they might well, however, be the reluctant and overworked 'packhorses' of a central bureaucracy fertile in plans and ideas. Under such conditions as these the attitudes and philosophy of a long-established local

community could be the major factor in the effectiveness of educational change.

The Provision of Adult Education : In accordance with the measure of numbers of those taking part and by local awareness among the population, there are three activities i.e. second chance classes, the trade-training schools, and the village scouts for the examination study in school subjects was the measure, for those who had dropped out from elementary or secondary schools in childhood. It was an adult parallel to formal education being run in evening schools, in temple halls, in training colleges, and in private premises. The second are the so-called mobile schools set up in the smaller urban areas to foster minor earning-crafts such as hairdressing and motor mechanics. It was hampered of immobilized by shortage of teachers and of premises. Both activities are mainly government organized, with participation of many Buddhist institutions and of private enterprise, with a total, perhaps, of as many as a quarter-million enrolments, even if the 'drop out' from attendance is high.

The village scouts, however, is an extraordinarily successful mass movement in many provinces and entirely outside formal education. It has a simple ideal of loyalty, community service and camp courses, with camp fires and songs reminiscent of the well-established Thai school 'tradition' of Boy Scout and Girl Guide troops, with the king as chief scout. The concept could be traced in direct descent from England's Baden Powell, Thai 'sanook', and national patriotism, with some added elements of anti-communism. A fourth activity, is well organized by the Adult Education which receives at least moral support from the movement for village-built Reading Centres, often simple huts or shelters for the reading and storage of pamphlets, newspapers and magazines. The youth training centres and the libraries programmes were more impressive

in plan. The over-all success depended much in each area on the personality and energy of the local officer, and on his capacity for local co-operation with officers of other departments. Co-ordination between central education officers of the many ministries and between the non-government agencies was being fostered with some difficulty by an advisory national Adult Education Council serviced by the Adult Education Division.

This culture which has an impact of the west, was influenced, by the distant past with the more immediate past and the present. In Thailand it is both the Buddhist temple stupa and the modern popular cinemas. In the words of Harris, "It is both the Thai-Chinese entrepreneur and the village rice-farmer, both ubiquitous transistor-radio and the equally common stone spirit-houses outside every shop and hotel and in the gardens of many private houses. Traditional culture, as Bown observes in an article on Nigerian traditional education, is (above all) continuity. Continuity will mean the constant taking in of new practices and traditions, either by free choice or by alien decision, whether unobtrusively and unmarked, or by dramatic innovation. The problem for the comparative observer in education is to recognize the changing trends in community attitudes, and not merely the traditions of the past. The proposed method and approaches may be put forward equally by foreign suggestion or by indigenous authority of a governing minority in the country, but it will be the community which must eventually dispose, and express its response. This is as true in a past-colonial Nigeria as in a freely developed Thailand".

Community Philosophy : In Scandinavian national culture one can recognise a group attitude of 'fierce' individual self-reliance and independence together with the discipline imposed by harsh physical environment. There appears to be ready acceptance of small groups and of a

demonstrative national patriotism, with a pride 'Nordic' distinctiveness from the non-Nordic world. The next characteristic Scandinavian non-formal education activities are the study groups (each meeting under their own selected study leader) and the voluntary national study organisation of any by adults and for adults. These associations and many other different adult educational institutions, can expect official government support without being expected to give automatic support to official policies. This (with careful safeguards against political abuse) is an old tradition dating back to the nineteenth century in Denmark. Recent legislations both in Sweden and Norway on provision of education for adults has involved not only a characteristic consultation with their many voluntary 'study' organisation, but also has relied on the official sharing of actual functions with the independent organisations. Denmark in particular and Scandinavian countries in general (including Sweden, Norway, Finland and Iceland) demonstrate the ability of adult education to contribute to the development and expansion of national traditions and of new community attitudes. Adult education, in a particular Danish pattern, is now, itself a part of the older Danish traditions.

Community attitude or social philosophy is a more complex and pervasive factor than might be suggested by concepts of national character or of national religion originally put forward by Harris "as representing two of the key influences on national education. It is more than a conscious philosophic rationalisation to guide conduct or more than an academic explanation to justify or explain acquired habits and customs. It is nearer to a national climate of community living within which social institutions and educational innovations develop. It is an organic reality subject to change but with long roots dating from a historic past. The development of the individual in

human communities would appear to take place partly in sequence and partly simultaneously in different and often contrasting settings. It is these settings of family, local community, school society and national society that help to mould a person the institutions for formal education represent only one of the many setting."

The education system may frequently contradict some of the values and teaching of experience in first plan the family and secondly the locality, the immediate community. The organised provision of adult non-formal education, like that of formal education is a setting atleast, partly indicated and guided by authority, but its messages are in constant competition; with the value of 'socialising agencies and influences' in 'adult community. Speaking of the 'developing countries' Coleman draws attention to two gross features in such societies, namely the continuing primacy of family in socialising the vast mass of population in rural areas and the load imbalance 'placed on the education system in the planned building of national attitudes. In larger established and more sophisticated national societies there would appear to be a similar variety of settings within which the members of a national community develop community attitudes, tendencies and aptitudes but with more flexible communication and experiencing a wider range of socialising agencies.

Part-II

Comparative Studies in Adult Education

- **Adult Education in U S.A.**
- **Adult Education in U.K.**
- **Adult Education in U.S.S.R.**
- **Adult Education in Denmark**
- **Adult Education in China**
- **Adult Education in Kenya**
- **Adult Education in India**



Adult Education in U. S. A.

5.1. The Country and People

United States of America has vast territories i. e. over 3,500,000 square miles. This is only a little short of the whole of Europe. In the words of King, "if the moon could be imagined as a disk laid flat on the map of the United States the Atlantic and the Pacific coastal states would be well exposed at the sides. The northern states have severe winter during which the farmers gaze for months on a lonely white land-scape dotted at rare intervals with clustered farm buildings. In the south at the very same

time, the roses are in bloom on New Year's day, and the streets are lined with date palms. Between the near tropical splendour of the gulf coast and the northern silences there is almost every imaginable type of terrain-gentle green lands like England, huge mountain areas where great forests are smoky with mist, plains of vast extent, the rocky mountains have and wild enough for the moon itself, extensive and fantastic deserts mangrove swamps that are the homes of ibis and alligator, and pacific pines and orange groves".

U. S. A. is the richest country of the world. It has vast natural resources. The agriculture is so developed that it produces to meet most of the deficit food for the world. The industrialization is of supreme type. The nation is proud of landing the man on the moon first of all. The technology is much developed. The production has crossed the first steps of automation and has reached a stage known as cybernetics. The occupational pattern of the population is so changed that by 1957 the United States became a country to have more white collar than blue collar workers. During the last fifty years so much of developments have taken place that the whole system of education and training had to change its needs. "A country with a working population in which one in ten is an unskilled labourer and one in twenty is a professional person is bound to have different educational and training prerequisites for the world of the work from those in a country in which more than one in ten is a professional person and only one in twenty is an unskilled labourer. This kind of reversal is exactly, of course, what happened in United States over the last fifty years."

Now, as things stand, the United States is a nation second to none in international power, superior to all in material standard of living and probably fourth in size of its population, only China, India are USSR are moer

populous. The population comprises of representatives from many different nationalities and racial groups who have become citizens and had helped to create a large and rapidly developing nation in relatively short time. This process has presented many problems, some of which have been solved satisfactorily by the process of Americanisation while others like colour problem are still unsolved. American policy has sought through education to create a sense of conformity of "Americanisation" to discharge cultural diversity and to face assimilation of different ethnic groups into the social norms of middle class Americans. Doubts and already been expressed at the concept of equality of opportunity for all ethnic groups long before the massive Coleman Report and the writings of Jencks et al. in the late 1960's. Extremists have urged that American public schooling has been even worse. It has been a capitalistic tool of indoctrination, purpose-fully used to stamp out cultural diversity, and has been imposed on unwilling ethnic groups by arrogant reformers.

In a fascinating article on "the History of Minority Group Education in United States", Diane Rouitch, in 1976 has tried to show that "neither the optimistic nor cynical interpretation is adequate, that both are cliches that mislead rather than enlighten" since the minority groups in USA are neither similar nor monolithic; that they have been treated differently at different times in different locations; that some wished to be assimilated and others did not, and that the views that minority groups were always opposed does not hold up to the evidence. In many cases public policy was to recognize the right of minority group to maintain private schools; in others they were educated in public schools".

The point is that for most of its existence there has been no national policy towards education in U. S. A. Individual states and communities have made their own arrangement for schooling free at federal interventation.

U. S. A. is composed of fifty sovereign states. These states have their own government. The states are quite autonomous in their educational system. In order to decentralise the system to suit the local conditions, which are different in different areas, not only because of geographical considerations but historical background and also as immigrants from different countries, have come to the point of view and the values held by most citizens have gradually been evolved with considerable origins. These developments have marked significance for educational programmes.

5.2. History

The history of adult education in the United States dates back to the early part of the 19th century. Adult education began in the U. S. more than a century ago. It was an attempt at educating the neo-Americans numbering nearly twenty five million immigrants coming from Europe. For a democratic country, it is necessary to have educated adults. An illiterate democracy is a curse. Either it cannot function or it misfunctions as is the case with India. It is no use giving them the power to vote, who just do not know the value of their vote. An illiterate democracy misleads and cuts the very roots of democracy. Adult Education is especially meant for those persons who could not get opportunity to educate themselves. They must be provided with education later on. Unless they are educated properly, they shall not be able to discharge their duties as citizens of the country.

There is another way of thinking that lays down that the adult education is an educational movement of all such youngmen and grown-up people, who give greater importance to their own occupations and are unable to acquire education through formalised method education, but they are interested in improving their educational attainments. The States of New York, Massachusetts, California and Rhode Island were among the first to

provide classes known as evening schools. However, these were usually found in the larger cities. By 1900, 165 major U.S. cities had evening schools.

An evening school is a place where people join together, unmindful of their occupations and vocations and differences in life. They try to secure excellence in their life and bring about the development of the human society. They also try to bring about the dissemination of culture and civilization according to their capacities and capabilities. The opportunity school of South Carolina was first organized in 1921 under the direction of Grey. It provided basic education for adults who needed it. The main problem before U.S.A. is to provide a sense of what it takes to become a literate, educated person.

The Moonlight schools were established in 1930 by Cosa Wilson Stewart in the mountainous areas of Kentucky Frank, Laubach and Marry Wallace. Between 1903 and 1914, the volume of immigrants increased to an average of almost 1 million a year. Most of whom could not speak, read or write English language. In 1917, Congress passed a law restricting immigration and making literacy a requirement for naturalization. After World War I, the number of classes in adult education declined. In 1944, first attempt was made to produce reading materials for adults. Adult Basic Education has its fundamental purpose of eradication of illiteracy. Believe it or not, adult illiteracy is still a cognizable problem in the United States, the world's wealthiest and materially advanced country.

One of the oldest forms of adult education in the U.S.A. has been variously designated as remedial, elementary, fundamental and literacy education. The extent of adult illiteracy in the states became largely evident during the World War II when recruitment to the armed forces was made on the basis of performance in reading and writing upto the fourth grade standard. In 1940 the U.S.

Bureau of the Census, designated those with less than five years of completed schooling as functional illiterates. However, the U.S. office of education has changed its definition. Most experts in adult education have come to regard any adult who has completed fewer than eight grades of schooling as functionally illiterate. The whole of the adult education is consequently dominated by the constraints of resource allocation and the need to account for the money spent to those who provide it.

Democracy requires a literate population. Jefferson remarked, "If a nation expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and never will be". The impact of technological changes have created a need for more education at the adult level. It is adult who makes the decisions in a self governing social order. Lack of decisions affects the role of the adult not only as a citizen but as a parent and homemaker. On the approximate estimate 15,000 adults are now annually enrolled in the literacy classes in the U.S.A. The New York and Chicago Public Schools award over 2,000 diplomas in a year.

Development of Adult Education : There are many examples in the American history to show that the people have organised various voluntary, cultural, social and political associations in order to fulfil the educational needs of the adults. Such provisions existed since the beginning of the eighteenth century.

Adult Education in the U.S.A. dates back to 1826, when the first Lyceum was founded in Massachusetts. It was a voluntary association of farmers and mechanics "for the purpose of self culture, community instruction and mutual discussion of common public interests". Hundreds of Lyceums were opened all over the country during the 19th century, but lately they have become commercialised and have partially lost their educational and cultural

influence. This system was based on lecture method. It took the shape of an education movement in 1826. It is known as 'Lyceunus Lecture Educational Movement'. This movement had spread throughout the U.S.A. before the state civil war began.

As a result of this movement the lecture and discussion extended by the existing churches, mechanics institutes and philosophical and historical societies could take a more developed form. It is estimated that about 4,000 such groups had been organising lecture and discussion programmes every week. A central organisation had been established to regulate and extend the movement.

In 1885 the Chantaqua Institution was started in Western New York as a summer school for two months, followed by similar courses in other places. Most of these institutions also became commercialised at a later stage. This effort is known as Chantaqua Institute Movement. In the summer camp along with outdoor life activities, lectures, discussions, recreation, exhibition, seminars, concerts, higher education classes, direction in home reading classes and other educational classes were organised. American people took sufficient interest in these programmes. However, with the beginning of the World War I these programmes came to an end and new projects were executed.

5.3. Other Adult Education Efforts

Lycenums and Chautauqua effected the university education too. In 1820, some universities started correspondence education system. By 1883, the Chautauqua University, later incorporated into the State University of New York, was granting liberal arts degrees to its part-time students. Chautauqua grew out of a summer school for Sunday school teachers. In 1892, the Chicago University tried to educate the adults by organising lectures. It was a first effort. It influenced other universities. Some

big universities adopted the Lecture System for adult education.

University extension was started in 1906 and is a regular feature of most of the universities. It was a pioneer of many new forms of instruction, education is not only the technology which needs the expanding demand of education, but also the innovation which channelises the education in such ways that equalisation of educational opportunities is maintained by way of meeting the educational needs of children and adults who do not access to schools either because of lack of facilities or their remoteness from the school.

In U.S.A., in 1891, Thomas J. Foster, proprietor and editor, directed the writing of a course of instructions, through correspondence for the safety of mining workers. This later on developed into "International Correspondence School of Scranton, Pennsylvania". On the demand for extension of University teaching during the 19th century, in U.S.A. the University of Wisconsin approved a faculty resolution for the development of university extension correspondence study. In the University of Chicago, in 1892, Dr. William R. Harper on becoming the President of the University, based upon the experience of his teaching to Sunday School teachers through correspondence, established a correspondence teaching division of the University Extension Services.

In U.S.A. the methodology of correspondence education is more mechanised than in any other country of the world. The process is computerised to the extent that most of the services of the institutions of correspondence teaching are automatic. In U.S.A. correspondence schools of the Air Cooperate in teaching students living too far from schools. The schools of the Air work through two ways. In U.S.A. the mass media of television is being put to use for improving and making correspondence education more effective.

There are about 700 correspondence schools which cater to the needs of a large number of adults through postal coaching. Almost all of them are privately run and their fields of guidance and direction cover nearly all sorts of subjects. In addition to this, there are about 200 such institutions, including university, colleges and higher institutions, which also carry correspondence courses. The most famous and widely organised institution of correspondence course is the National Correspondence of School of Scranton, Pennsylvania, where over 60,000 answer books are received daily. It is very popular among the adult education of U. S. A. People make use of this system for varied purposes.

(8) High Schools : These institutions played an important part in the U. S. A. These schools provide education in several subjects of occupational information, commercial literary, cultural, recreational and domestic importance. These schools provide general education from the lowest standard to highest. Some of these function in the evening so as to cater to the needs of those who cannot attend it during the day.

(9) Junior Colleges : There are a new creation education in America. These colleges play a vital role. They run evening classes and provide a community centre for adults. These colleges provide general, literary, social, cultural and industrial education to the adults. Their number is about 800 today. Education must provide the context within which students gain some understanding of the perspectives from which they may view life as an individual and life as an responsible member of the world community.

(10) Labour Unions : There are big towns in U.S.A. These have established several adults colleges and educational centres. It was in 1921 that first centres were

established. These provide training in leadership and acquaint the educands with the problems of labour.

(11) Community Projects : When the community saw that the universities and adults education institutions were playing a vital role they took up this jobs as well. Community projects are drawn keeping in view the local requirements. At several places Community Adult Education Councils have been established. They imparted education of different fields.

5.8 Financial Assistance for Adult Education

Finances for adult education are provided by the Federal Administration as well as State Governments. People coming from outside are provided with education for which the money is provided by the state. There are now hundreds of centres of adults education. Thousands of museums, reading rooms and centres of radio programmes have been established. A Director of Vocational Education has been appointed to supervise the programmes of adult education. Sometimes private agencies and philanthropic individuals to come out with aids. Several acts have been passed by the government in this regard. Smith Hughes Acts, Smith Lever Act and George Barden Act etc. are quite important acts in this regard.

Aid given by the state governments : Certain states give more and certain states give less aid. The aid is not sufficient to meet the entire expenditure. They collect funds by way of fees and other local sources.

Aid given by Public Institutions : There are certain public bodies that give aid to the institutions that run adult education programmes. These bodies may be religious, commercial firms and other agencies. Some are so rich that they are able to meet expenses without any aid.

Aid given by the Universities : Many universities financed these centres. Private corporatas and others donated to the Universities.

Worker's Education : Education of the workers is quite popular in the U. S. A. Infact, it is an important part of adult education. It is made for workers but it includes adult education programmes. Worker in America is a person who does not have a business of his or her own and he or she is paid for the work that he or she does. The main object of this education is to develop the working efficiency and capacity of these persons. After that they are given promotion. Since the education is mainly meant for the workers so it is termed as "Workers Education". No doubt it has the elements of adult education.

5.9 Programmes of the Agencies of Adult Education

Since the beginning of the 20th century several agencies have taken to the programmes of Adult education. The main agencies in this regard are the states and trade unions.

Trade Unions : Several trade unions of U. S. A. run and maintain worker's education. The largest union is United Automobile Worker's Union. Other trade unions are International Ladies Garments Worker's Union, Amalgamated Clothing Worker's Union, Farmers Union. They play their part very successfully. Every year millions of people benefit by these programmes. Certain unions have cultural departments.

Programmes run by the State : State plays an important role. First of all it was done in the year 1933 under New Deal Act. This act was passed with a view to end unemployment. Later on this act gave birth to several programmes. Since then, almost 30 states of America have taken several programmes. These include debates, exhibitions and other recreational activities.

Programmes run by State and Local Bodies : The State Administration and local units as well as local bodies draw up programmes for education of the workers. These programmes are casual while the others are whole-time.

Programmes of Adult Education Carried out by National Agencies : It included Labour Education Centre, which was established in the year 1921, and the others is 'American Federation of Labour.' This is affiliated to the American Federation of Labour.

Schools for Workers : There are several schools for workers in U. S. A. These schools are specialised in the programmes of workers education. The first school of this kind was established in 1893 in the city of New York. Now, there are several programmes. These programmes are carried out in a scientific and planned manner.

Youth Education : It plays an important role in the U.S.A. In fact, youth education means the education that is imparted to the young men after their having the school or college and entering into some vocation or occupation. Several socio-economic agencies in America have insisted such an education. Several problems have cropped-up that affect the life and living of these youngmen. Attempt is made to solve these problems. The period for youngmen and women after finishing the education and before entering into some occupation, is the period of crisis. This period of crisis has to be met successfully and the problem solved. There are others welfare programmes for youngmen and women. There are several agencies which play their part.

Government agencies : The government of the U.S.A. has drawn up several programmes to provide a new deal to the young men women. One of these programmes is Civilian Conservation Corps. This corps tries to meet the physical and psychological requirements of the students through several programmes. Then there is provision for whole time afforestation and land reclamation. In 1935, National Youth Administration was set-up. These agencies tries to provide part time and whole-time jobs to youngmen and women. After World War II National Security

Organisation was set-up. This organisation run under the Defence Department of U.S.A. tries to meet the requirements of unemployed youngmen and women.

Non-Government Agencies or Voluntary Agencies : In 1935, American Council of Education appointed an American Youth Commission. This commission was appointed with a view to study the problems of youngmen and women. On the basis of report submitted by this commission several programmes for the guidance of young boys and girls were drawn-up. Several industrial as well as organisations came forward with plans for the guidance of youngmen and women. Now there are over 50 such voluntary organisations and some other organisation which are trying to guide education, protection, recreation and other health giving activities.

Different Programmes of Youth Education : After finishing the educands, youngmen and women are in need of jobs. They have to be counselled and guided in this field. These bodies have a programme for the education and guidance of these young boys and girls. Several private as well as government agencies organise these programmes. Attempt is made on programmes of vocational or occupational efficiency, programmes for job experience, programmes for apprentice training, programmes for providing part-time jobs to youngmen and women, like members of some trade union bodies.

Vocation-Division of Education Office : There is a vocation division of the education office of these organisation, whose main task is to try to get jobs for young men and women. There are certain cooperation schools and colleges that have a work study plan for the education of the youth. These youth education programmes are developing every day. They have a bright future.

The term adult education is used to convey three meanings. It is the process by which men and women

continue learning. It includes listening, reading, travelling and conversing. Adult education describes a set of organized activities for mature men and women carried on by a wide variety of institutions for accomplishment of educational objectives. Third meaning combines all the processes and activities of adult education into the idea of a movement or field. It has very bright future in the U.S.A. which is developed in all spheres.

4. To develop the reasoning faculties of our youth, enlarge their minds, activate their morals and instill into them the precepts of virtue and order;
5. To enlighten them with mathematical any physical sciences, which advance the arts and administer to the health, the subsistence, and comforts of human life.
6. And generally to form them to habits of reflection and correct action, rendering them examples of virtue to others, and of happiness within themselves.

State universities from their earliest years had purposes that were practical scientific, economic and protective of democratic government. Land grant research invented the modern carburetor isolated vitamins and put the coranic industry on a scientific basis. The Morrill Act also brought military science on to college campuses. It prevented the U.S. military from becoming a separate professional caste by establishing ROTC programmes at the Universities. During World War I, 30,000 army and navy officers were graduates of land-grant institutions. Preparation for defence of the nation becomes duty of land-grant colleges.

Land-grant colleges brought discussion classes, experiments, field-trips and laboratories to higher education. As Jonathan Turner of Illionois, one of the God fathers of the land-grant colleges noted in the 1850s, colleges were

mainly for what he called "the literary and leisure classes." The 5 percent, women who had been allowed to attend college only at a few places like Oberlin were admitted to the land grant colleges.

Young people came to college from Limber Campus, dairy farms, factory villages, and behind grocery store counters in small towns. Land grant universities have always had a special relationship with the people, industries and governments of their regions. But private institutions have also jumped into adult education and career programme.

Future of Land Grant Universities : In future the emphasis should be of three kinds :

1. The emphasis should be on the maintenance of the old land-grant themes, but with an updated approach.

2. It should be on the revival of a few old land-grant themes that have been allowed to atrophy, but which need renewed attention because of new conditions.

3. The third should concentrate on new themes that seem appropriate for public research universities in the 1980s and 1990s.

Land-grant emphases that should be continued are these :

The study of agriculture should remain a strong concern, especially since private institutions avoid it and since the world's food supply is getting tight. The research work of the Agricultural Experiment Station should be as vigorous as ever, as should the mass education efforts of the Cooperative Extension Service. But food comes from the sea as well as from on land, so marine science, coastal waters research, and sea-grant extension activities should increase at state universities on America's seacoasts. The University of Maryland has a special obligation here

because of its proximity to Chesapeake Bay. Agricultural help for foreign nations should be increased.

Engineering and applied science at state universities should intensify. But traditional engineering should be renovated for the 1990s. The public research universities have an urgent mission to help their states and the nation with technological innovations. Closer ties are needed to the basic sciences that affect engineering work, and with the burgeoning field of computer science because knowledge and technology now drive each other forward with increasing interplay.

Education for work should also continue as an emphasis, although mere vocationalism must continue to be shunned. Professional schools should be first-rate and receive fully equal treatment in terms of equipment, quality appointments, and research with department teaching the equally vital liberal arts and sciences. Though theory should never be neglected, state universities have a special obligation to provide what Thomas Jefferson called "knowledge useful at this day".

Instruction should emphasize the acquisition of learning skills. Students should be active learners with experiments, analyses, writing and discussion so that they can apply scholarly techniques in their many activities after their university studies end. Whenever possible, undergraduate research should be encouraged.

Admission to the state university should stress higher education for all talented and eager people regardless of social differences or economic background. Public universities have a special obligation to students who are poor and to minorities, especially blacks. Tuition should be kept as low as possible. As tuitions rise, scholarships for the least able to pay should increase.

The land-grant emphases that the things should be revived :

1. Service to the state and its key agencies and to the state's leading organizations. Structures should be established to permit smoother consultation and exchange between the state university and the region's leading organizations and corporations. As research universities increasingly become the driving force for improved quality of life and economic development, a closer partnership between government, business, and the public research university is essential.

2. The state university in the 1980s should return to a closer and productive interplay with the schools. In past decades schools and universities have increasingly gone separate ways. Now new links, interpretations, and exchanges of instructors are needed to improve the quality of preparation of students and to enlighten the universities about the needs of schools, their teachers and their students.

3. **Military affairs :** A continug military draft, even in peacetime, is becoming a possibility. The military portion of the federal budget is now the largest expenditure item, after social security payments. Strategic weaponry means push-button international nuclear warfare is conceivable. Arms expenditures are increasing worldwide. And the state of American university scholarship about the military and its practices is extraordinarily weak. Study of the military's role in American life and a more active role in defense needs should be a new responsibility of public research universities.

There were some new emphases too for the post-land-grant-university in the 1980s.

No one campus is sufficient any longer to carry out the land-grant mandate. State universities thus need to

have a multi-campus organization; and states to provide for opportunity for their citizens should have local community colleges and some smaller state colleges, strong in teaching to complement the public research university and its special role.

The state university in the future must pay increasing attention to the quality of life. The quality of health, social services, environment, water, cultural life, recreation facilities, and the physical appearance of communities for all the citizens of the state is becoming more important, and in such cases as toxic wastes or child abuse a matter of life and death.

As higher education becomes more and more a life-long, continuing matter, adult and continuing education will need greater emphasis. This is important both for continued economic vitality and for personal enrichment and intellectual growth.

International concerns and training should increase at the state universities. Economic development now means international trade and marketing. People live more than before in a pluralistic, many-nationed world which is increasingly interdependent. World peace and America's security depend heavily on better knowledge of the people outside the United States.

7. Correspondence Schools

The scheme of correspondence course, was designed to serve as a suitable alternative path to wider opportunities in higher education. Correspondence education is a method of teaching in which the teacher bears the responsibility of imparting knowledge and skills to the adults or students who do not receive instructions orally but who study in places and at times determined by their individual circumstances. Broadly speaking correspondence very successful instruments and such agencies are found in almost all rural as well as urban areas.

2. Agencies for Continuous Process of Adult Education : There are certain agencies that make arrangement for the continuous process of the adult education. These bodies are collective and cooperative bodies. They include citizen committees, labour unions and commercial business firms. Main task of these bodies is to train their members in the jobs for which they exist. Labour unions train their members for leadership. There are several moving libraries and museums in the U. S. A. These bodies make arrangement for lectures and exhibitions. About 30,00,000 people get benefit annually by these programmes.

3. Adult Education Institutions : In the U. S. A. one can come across such colleges and schools which award degrees so freely that would doubtfully be awarded even lower certificates in U. K. and U. S. S. R. There are good and prestigious colleges also, which can compete with the standard of any other country of the world.

Mostly the term college and university are synonymously used in American culture. There are such courses as nursing, accounting catering, advertising, commerce and journalism which are being studied at college and university level in the U. S. A., when no where else it might be so. The main aim of giving college experience to the students in U. S. A. is to give them a state of academic learning and a foot hold on the ladder of social esteem and advancement.

4. Universities : They play a vital role in the spread of adult education in U. S. A. There are about 75 to 100 universities that take part in adult education. In the U.S.A. only those institutions which make elaborate arrangement for elaborate study research and running higher degree courses are termed as universities. The universities can either be private as well as government and mostly get central grant for the research work. The private universities also get state grant for different purposes.

New York University is considered to be ideal in this regard. It is a privately supported university. There is a department of general education that runs the adult education programme. The fee is charged from educands but it is so reasonable that nobody feels it. Some universities are also run by the Local Higher Education Boards which manage their affairs and shoulder their financial responsibilities, too. The Detroit University in U.S.A. is one such institution and in addition it gets grant both from state and federal government.

There are programmes of industrial education as well as programmes of adult education run by New York University divided into two categories :

1. Cultural programmes that include the study of foreign languages and literature.
2. Occupational and vocational training given to employees who are anxious to learn.

The main problem remains before these universities and colleges excruciatingly difficult to agree on the key assumptions underlying the curriculum as a whole. As a result colleges have become balkanized. Colleges and universities selected to participate in the first phase of the bachelalaureate degree project are Carnegie Mellon University, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; Brooklyn College, New York, Hampshire College, Roole Island College, University of Tennessee, Washington University etc.

President Giamatti of Yale has put it succinctly, "The University is the guardian of the imagination that both defines and asserts our humanity". Education should help individuals to become aware of their values since they in turn govern our actions and thus affect how we try to shape the future. We wish not only to impart knowledge and intellectual skills but also to nurture such qualities of mind and character as curiosity, critical adoumen, discerning judgement, ethical awareness, and the ability to confront

the unfamiliar with confidence. We should see such objectives as applicable to the major, miscellaneous courses, the extracurricular, and the very act of bringing a certain number of adults together in one academy.

Departments in University become self serving when they argue that the constant growth of knowledge requires continuously expanding. The programme changes should have occurred in the programme when trustees, presidents, deans and key faculty agree on the needs to change. It may help, therefore, to change our way of thinking about the problem by moving away from specific courses or decisions of knowledge to the goals once again. Lectures; concerts and exhibitions serve some purpose presumably.

(5) Municipal and District Schools : These institutions are established and run by school districts and municipalities. It is generally of four years duration and are effective and popular. Four New York colleges of this pattern managed by the Local Higher Education Board are the biggest institutions of the world.

(6) Land Grant College : In 1862, Lincoln signed out one document called the Land Grant College Act. It offered the states additional government land in order to use the proceeds of its sale to fund "College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts". This act is popularly known as Morrill Act of 1862 which was written by a congressman. Morrill Act contained about 100 pages. The idea of this type of institution was borrowed from Steven Van Rensselac, a wealthy far sighted man. In 1824, he founded an institution of training in New York State, called Rensselaes Institution which later on developed into a full fledged college and is even now one of the best colleges of U.S.A. with an idea to apply science to the common purpose of life. The final picture of the University of such a type was conceived by a trio of education pioneers :

Jonatham B. Turner, a teacher, Thomas G. Clenuson a Chemist and Jastin S. Morrill a politician.

As a result of the act lands were offered to the States for establishing such colleges. The principle derived from the sale of federal land grant was to be invested and only the resulting income could be invested by the states. The federal funds could be used only to pay the faculty salaries. If the state would furnish land and buildings, the federal government offered a peripheral endowment for instructional purposes. With this grant states could help the existing institutions or establishing new college. In such institutions there was to be no restriction on the teaching of classical subjects and other scientific studies than agriculture.

Each state was free to create or to adopt a university suitable for the needs of its people. Iowa was the first to accept this offer within two months of enactment. Some Southern States set aside a portion of this grant for providing separate institutions for Negroes as in 1890, all states were required by congress to admit negroes in their land grant universities or to establish institutions to provide equal instructions for them. Now there are 68 land grant institutions, out of which 32 are state or territory universities 20 colleges or universities separate from state universities and 16 institutions primarily attended by negroes. Now the new trend as a result of Supreme Court decisions is that all the negro universities admit white students and vice versa.

The land grant institutions are not administered direct by the state but by a separate independent board of trustees, responsible to some degree to the respective state governments. The land grant institutions enroll 20% of the present college population and award 40% of the doctorate degrees in all subjects. Out of 17 colleges of uterinary medicine in North America, 15 are land grant

institutions. These institutions emphasise agriculture and engineering but they have not neglected the classical and liberal art courses.

Nearly 1/3 of all research projects under way in modern language and literature throughout the world are in land grant universities of the U.S.A. In the campus of University of Arkansas, there is a fine art centre built at a cost of more than a million dollars. The University of California at Los Angeles recently acquired one of the world's great art research collections on Leonardo de Vinie, consisting more than 15000 items. The University of Illinois has available for its graduate students. H. G. Wells Archives of 20th century literacy papers. The University of Arizona maintains a poetry centre which was dedicated by Robert Forst, an American poet.

Since the birth of the idea of a state university in Georgia in 1775, the purpose of these publicly supported institutions has had a different flavour from that of America's private colleges, most of which were founded by religious sections or devoutly religious laymen. Public Institutions were to support the infant republic, help citizens, and promote economic development as well as train minds and improve manners. Thoman Jefferson, who wrote the charter of the University of Virginia in 1818, defined his State's University as "an institution in which every branch of knowledge useful at this day is taught in its highest degree". The word "useful" is significant. Jefferson also listed some purposes of a State University :

1. To form the statesmen, legislators and judges, on whom public prosperity and individual happiness are so much to depend;
2. To expound the principles and structure of government; the laws which regulate the intercourse of nations, those formed municipally for our own government and a sound spirit of

legislation, which banishing all unnecessary restraint on industrial action, shall leave us free to do whatever does not violate the equal rights of another;

3. To harmonize and promote the interests of agriculture, manufacturers and commerce, and by well informed views of political economy to give a free scope to the public industry. People are utilising libraries, museums, religious places, reading rooms and radio and television programmes. According to the previously collected data, about 300,00,000 adults, busy in different professions, were receiving adult education is one school or the other. About five million adult men and women received adult education of the highest education level.

A University Without Walls : "Minnesota's New Metropolitan State College" (MMSC) has no campus, holds no regular classes, gives no grades, requires no previous schooling for admission. A free wheeling alternative to the rigidities of traditional universities. It offers its students merely a good education and a bachelor's degree."

—Eedo Michael W.

The campus of MMSC comprises of seven community areas around neighbouring northern cities of Minneapolis and St. Paul. About 96% of the students lived in the Metropolitan areas. Mostly students are full time employees. They have never been to college and hold no degree through internal degree programme. This is primarily an adult education programme, one must be of 21 years of age at the time of admission. Only those who have background and experience merit, what the school calls 'equivalency' or experience equal to formal study are admitted. It means that one who does not hold the basic degree for admission, to the higher class is also admitted subject to certain conditions. In Indian terminology one who is not a graduate

can be admitted to M. A. degree, if he has requisite knowledge, experience or background.

In it, students understand that life and education are not separate. With the help of the advisors they are able to map-up their own individual routes to a degree. The plan of the student is called 'Educational Pact' for what one is admitted after he pays the fee which is to be paid only once. There is no time limit for the completion of the degree. It all depends on the previous standing alongwith the time one can afford. Each student is to complete thirty study units, 'shares' or 'subcontracts' which can loosely be compared to the traditional semester hours.

After admission, the student is assigned a group. This is also approved by the student faculty committee who makes sure that it is worth the degree. Otherwise short comings are spelled out and isolated to make them up. There is no time to start the session; rather students are admitted round the year. There are twenty faculty members on the staff. The teaching work is done by members of community faculty who number near about 300. Most of them have no academic credentials but are professional practitioners. They are to be paid according to the number of the students.

The philosophy of the college is down the earth pragmatism meaning there by that the education should lead the students to a productive role with in the community. Each student attains competency in five areas-basic learning and communication, civic involvement, vocational and professional competency, in the wise use of leisure and recreation and professional growth and development. Main objective is to develop competency and degree itself. The State University of New York opened its own university without-walls in 1971—Empire State University. Eventually it opened about 8 units in the other parts of the state.

5.4 Methods and Materials

The 'whole' or the 'global' method known as 'Sentence Method' is almost universally used in the American adult literacy classes. Much faster progress in reading is claimed when the learner studies a complete thought unit and then proceeds to analyse it into its components parts. The Laubach System of Phonetic-Approach through syllables or simple words and then proceeding from words to sentences has not gained much popularity evidently because English, in particular is rather difficult to be taught by the phonetic method.

The Visual 'Kinesthetic Method', the road, write spell, contract plan and verisimilitude technique in teaching, writing are also in use. The Direct Method of teaching language is preferred to the indirect or translation method. Considerable use is made of dramatization, display of pictures and blackboard sketches to make the lessons vivid and interesting. Little emphasis is placed on grammar and formal language structure during the early stages of literacy lesson.

A literacy series and similar primers written at an early reading level with special attention to a select vocabulary supplemented by flash cards, mounted magazines, pictures and loose leaf practice sheets are widely used in the literacy classes. Daily newspapers, illustrated magazines of digest or news type are quite popular as supplementary materials.

For adults the modern method of teaching through programmed instructions is mostly used. In this technique one is in a position to study at his own pace and at times without the help of the teacher. In this technique more effort is made by the teacher to prepare the frames and to provide proper priming and prompting so that reader is in a position to get encouragement and proceed further. After reading a few steps based on the analogy of small, small

steps, one is in a position to continue if he is proceeding on the correct lines. In case he is not on the right path, then in different types of programmed instructions techniques, one is made to proceed on different lines.

In addition teaching through machines or computer is also becoming popular in the area of adult learning. Now more and more use of machines is being made for this purpose. This technique is interesting and more effective also.

Radio and Television

The radio and television are perhaps the most potential forms of mass communication media. These are positive factors in adult education today. Educational television is daily extending its range of services. Though numerous television broadcasting stations set-up all over the country, day-time and evening programmes for adult teaching, are being broadcast to meet the needs of modern mass education. The modern man must constantly keep abreast with new facts, new skills, new ideas and values in order to adjust himself with the non-stop flow of life. The two broad phases of education now widely recognized are :

- (i) acquisition of the basic knowledge and skills needed by one to live by; and
- (ii) acquisition of wisdom to use these skills properly and to realize the ultimate meaning of life, for which adult education is indispensable.

The use of television and radio is being increasingly made not only to teach the illiterates, but at the highest level of teaching and learning also. Some of the T.V. stations have special programmes for adult education which includes the programme of continuing education also. In this programme even science and technological subjects are taught to the students. The radio and T.V., in addition

to its being a method of education in itself, also supplement the correspondence education and Open University Programme. Video tapes on different programmes are also prepared and video libraries established in the institutions of learning. This process and programme is proving to be very effective. In USSR, radio and T.V. are playing a prominent role in making their correspondence courses a success. However, maximum use of these mass media is being made in U.S.S.R. to impart all the three types of education i. e. informal, non-formal and formal. In the process of adult education, it has a vital role to play.

Films and Film Strips : Adults are quite well interested in pictures and this makes them enjoy along with learning. No doubt it is costly, but in U.S.A. it is occasionally used. Motion pictures attract the adults more than the still pictures. Sometimes V.C.R. is also used in the teaching. Slides can be used to explain the lesson very effectively. The use of different types of projectors is made to show films and film strips in the adult education programme.

5.5 Functions of Adult Education

1. Adult Education is the utilisation of leisure time in such a way so as to help the people to develop the tendency of their inward communication and create a habit of quiet reflection to be able to welcome the occasional solitude.
2. Adult education helps the people having faith in different religions and social environments. It enables them to live together and appreciate the ideas and feelings of one another.
3. Another object is to inculcate in the people a habit of tackling cheerfully the life problems and find their peaceful solutions.

4. Through it, farmers are given training in agricultural extension.
5. In democratic countries the aim of adult education is to impart such knowledge to people and enable them to express their opinions soundly on the responsibilities and policies of the government.

The adult education in U.S.A. means the utilisation of leisure time. It helps greatly in the attainment of the objective of the general education which is a "life long learning". The adult education system is not an institutional system, in as much as it starts when the regular school education has finished.

5.6 Aims of Adult Education in U.S.A.

Adult Education in U.S.A. has the following aim :

1. To help the adults of U.S.A. to get an opportunity for life long study and provide them with necessary facilities.
2. To make the citizens aware of their political, social, domestic and economic responsibilities and to equip them to be able to discharge them successfully.
3. To make the arrangement for such programmes for adults through which they may develop their qualities of citizenship and also make use of the facilities.
4. To make arrangements for the teaching of subjects like English language and literature, music, drawing, physical hygiene etc
5. To develop the qualities of sociality and sociability amongst the members of different groups of culture, civilization and values.
6. To acquaint the adults with various national and international problems.

7. To educate the people in attaining full or partial efficiency in some professional areas.
8. To provide such education to the physically handicapped through which they can earn their livelihood.
9. To develop in the adults the requisite economic efficiency to help them to acquire further knowledge regarding occupation.

5.7 Organisation of Adult Education

There are two main channels of adult education in U. S. A. :

- (a) Formal or Formalised Education.
- (b) Informal or Informalised Education

(a) Formal Adult Education

1. **School for Adults** : The system of adult education is the most popular form of adult education in U. S. A. There is a rich programme of formal adult education. It includes institutes that run correspondence courses as well as the universities that have their education extension programmes. This arrangement aims at imparting a continuous education facilities to adults. These schools provide organised education to the adults. Mostly the management of such institutions is under the Professors of universities and other important educationists. One of the most important and the oldest schools which yields a great influence is the 'People's Institute of New York'.

There is no qualification laid down for admission to such institutes. There are regular courses for adult education. Attached to such institutes, there is generally a research department that tries to find out the requirement of a particular locality or the group of people that has to go in for adult education. The other schools carrying out the programme of adult education have almost similar programme.

2. Institutes of Adult Education : Lowell Institute of Boston is the oldest of this kind. In such institutions, lectures are organised on the topics that are of interest to the adults of the country. Several thousands of persons attend such institutes. It was established in 1839. It also provides education in technical courses and in various professional subjects. The Brooklyn Institute is another ideal school under this system. The music section of this institute is considered to be the best music institution of U. S. A.

3. New Schools for Social Research : This is the product of the 20th century. It was established in 1919 with a view to organise programmes for progressive and higher education. The main object of this school is to provide knowledge of various social problems to the people who are educated and engaged in different vocations. There are several programmes of social education in these schools. These programmes include debates, lectures, etc. on various political, historical, social and psychological problems. There is also arrangement of providing education through correspondence.

(b) Non-Formal Education

The non-formal adult education institutions include those schools which do not follow any definite specified and well organised system of education. These bodies do not have any definite organised programme. Under this system, we may include Lyceum and clubs for gents and ladies, museums, libraries, dramatic clubs, radio, television, movies, press etc.

1. Agricultural Agents : These agencies were established under Smith Lever Act of 1914. Their main task is to acquaint the farmers with the latest techniques of agricultural production. These are including correspondence study, summer schools, book clubs and reading

circles, all of which were adapted by American University Extension. Its curriculum was mostly broad based.

During the transition period of the 19th and 20th century, a good many of illiterate labourers from Europe migrated to America. Most of the labourers were totally illiterate. Since the discontinuance of mass immigration from Europe this form of adult education is gradually disappearing in the North, but is still a problem in the South in view of the large number of illiterate Negroes. It was necessary to educate them for American citizenship. In the beginning the American people were of the opinion that adult education programmes should be organised for only those persons who could not receive formal education during their childhood or youth and were engaged in some occupations. Such conditions continued upto the end of the 19th century. Later on, people realised that education was a continuous process. It goes from birth to death. Therefore, provision was made in the education plans for the education of infants, adults and old persons. It was demanded at that time that adult education should be conducted by schools for adults, established for the purpose of adult education for the first time in 1924. An integrated and practical curriculum of adult education was started in Cleveland.

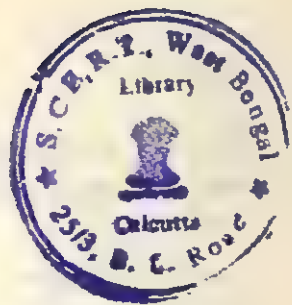
After the World War I the institutes of adult education or lectures institutes of adult education flourished. During this period financially strong Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Science, New York, included vocational and social education in its adult education programme. It was developed specially during the period of 1925 to 1950. Not only youth but adults and old persons were inclined to receive education. The aims were revised and the modern needs were included in it. An attempt was made to make the individual an able citizen of the country by acquainting him with changes and developments in family, occupations,

community and country and the international affairs along with political, scientific and social changes. Reading rooms, libraries, museums and night schools were established in almost every city, town and village.

Adult education programmes were organised on private, religious and public places. These efforts were also named as adult education schools. Adult education movement is an important public movement in America because the American citizens are eager for learning and adult education provides all possible help for preparing them for life. Adult education, in the U.S.A., is now a form of continuing education providing opportunities, to develop both the social as well as vocational aspect of the life of an individual. Most of the Americans change their occupations so many times in their life. Adult education provides them opportunities to get ready for the change of the job, for the development in his own occupation for advancement in their careers in his own life, to get himself afresh with the new dimensions of his job. The old machines with the advancement of knowledge are getting obsolete and new more sophisticated machines are being installed. The worker needs to know the new technology and innovations so as to be able to handle new machines for which adult education programme is a must and it is to be provided in a continuous way. The same is true with not only those who work on machines, but also with those who deal with human relations, economic development and other occupations. So in the U.S.A. both adult education and continuing education are operating in the sphere of their operation and are urgently needed for almost all the people. This movement provides an opportunity to every illiterate and semi-illiterate, youth adult and old persons to receive adult education during leisure hours after the whole day's vocational labour. Both men and women participate in this movement. Firstly this movement surprised the foreigners as for the Americans it was

a medium for the fulfilment of their creative and functional needs.

Adult education developments were established with a view to make the migrated persons a broad efficient American. This provided them opportunities for leadership and success in life. Modern American adult education is very much developed. Besides receiving education in adult education schools few million.



Adult Education in U.K.

6.1 United Kingdom : The Country and The People :

The official name of the country is "United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland." The "Great Britain" included England, Wales and Scotland. Whatever disagreement they might have between themselves, it is difficult for a Britain to think of himself as a European, though their ideas and institutions are a part of European tradition. The total population of the country is 55 million people of whom 45 million live in England. The population density of England is 825 per sq. mile as compared to

50 in U.S.A. The Northern Ireland has its own Parliament but the rest of U. K. is governed by the Parliament in London.

As compared to U.S.A., India and U.S.S.R., and China, U.K. is comparatively a smaller country. The climate is extreme and most of the area gets snow every year. The country is not very rich in natural resources except for coal. Without imports, she is unable to provide raw material to her industry which is very well planned and developed. In spite of all their limitations they are in a position to manage to be one of the big five powers of the world. Mostly she buys raw material from others, produce finished goods out of it and sell others. Most of the labour is also imported from under developed countries. Britishers enter in competition with the most developed countries of the world for sale of their products and manage to be industrially advanced nation and thus stimulate their economy. Her import needs are so great that as a result of the policy of oil by Arab Nations, she has to cut her working week to three days only. The credit goes to her for producing a type of character in the nation, which no equal in the world. It is voluntarily developed on democratic basis. A common man is serious, sincere to the nation and devoted to his job.

Britishers have many a contradiction in their behaviour. It is a contradiction to say that Britishers are only conservative as they take quite some time to accept a change. They are in fact proud of bold ventures and are not afraid of experimental uncertainty. Their emphasis is to advance, even when the path is not so smooth. It is perhaps why that their revolution has brought more changes than most of the revolutions of the world. They have stubborn habits, which make them sure that they are correct even when others lay down the law. They would mostly work things out in their own way and change only when a

better method has been roughed out. The Britishers themselves call it "muddleing though" and laugh about it. Philosophers call this philosophy as "Empiricism" a school of thought which is a characteristics of a British. In the words of King :

"To an outside observer, Great Britain is a land of paradox. There is an easy assumption that radical self-government is every one's right, yet there is a monarchy and an hereditary peerage. The average working man until recently had an earning not much higher than the average American Negro's : but he and his family had complete social security in health, pension and unemployment service, and a university or professional education need not cost him anything. There is also strict public control over the rich, their income and their legacies. Class distinctions are strong and suitably graded from the highest to the lowest, but external politeness should not hide from an overseas observer the fact that money and family prestige alone by other people's respect and compliance less in Britain than, for example, in United States."

There is not much of unemployment. Their planning is socially and economically sound. For one man engaged in agriculture, nearly thirteen work in mining, manufacturing and building, U.K. is an urban and industrialised nation. In the field of politics, two parties i.e. labour and conservatives, always supports the principles of full employment, national ownership of public utilities, and an effective system of social security. The conserving party, while upholding the necessity of retaining industrial enterprise for capital class, formulates policies which envisage material prosperity for the whole nation. Whenever there is labour government, the educational policies are in favour of common school, equal opportunities and against stratification. The conservative government plans

in favour of the great public schools and the grammar schools. The educational history of U.K. can be divided into two parts i.e. before and after the Act of 1944.

6.2 Legislation in Modern Education

Further Education : According to the Education Act, 1944, part-time and fulltime vocational education is to be provided by the local education authorities (LEAs) upto to the age of 18 years. Part-time courses are to be given without fees, in country colleges and village colleges for one day or two half-days a week of the employer's time. The work is to be cultural as well as vocational, with emphasis on training for citizenship. For full-time vocational education, commercial colleges or colleges of art and music are to be provided by the local education authority (LEA). Fees may be charged in these, but no qualified student is to be debarred from taking a course through inability to pay these fees.

6.3 Adult Education in U.K.

Mass illiteracy is no more a problem in U. K. Compulsory school attendance upto the age of 16 as for all practical purposes made illiteracy almost non-existent. Isolated but not too uncommon cases of relapse do not pose any cognizably mass scale problem. These are specific problems to be specifically treated.

Every-one learns how to read and write, and these skills are unavoidably required to be used to get along in the existing conditions of life, the skills are cultivated and retained. Adult education in U.K., therefore connotes something else than literacy. It is also not used to mean technical and vocational training. There are men and women who want to continue their studies without any vocational or commercial motive. There are others, particularly working-class people, who want to take a more active part in trade unions and cooperatives of IEA's. There are also people to whom learning is a hobby, a joy

and pleasure for its own sake. These different interests combine to form quite a sizable section of the population for whom adult education is an necessity. It is systematically organised in a well planned way.

Origin of Adult Education : Adult Education in U. K. owed its origin to the Nineteenth Century Industrial Revolution. With the industrialization process the occupations multiplied the employment potentials, improved the social mixing up increased the longitudinal and latitudinal mobility. The workers were to be trained, retained and further trained for which Mechanics' Institutes were set up in the wake of the establishment of mills, mines, factories and workshops which employed workers in large numbers. The Mechanics Institutes were intended to offer courses on the know-how of industries and machine operations etc. Such courses had, of course, to pay attention to the illiteracy of the working men as well.

6.4 Workers' Educational Association

A tradition of independent Worker's Education grew alongside the Trade Union and Cooperative Movements, with the aim of making the working-class people socially and politically more conscious and effective. The founder of the Worker's Educational Association (W.E.A.), Albert Mansbridge, himself an active associate of the cooperative movement, was deeply interested in the principles of consumer's cooperation, and general advancement of the working class. This brought him in close touch with the British Labour Party. Mansbridge advocated close association between the University Extension Movement and the Working Class organization. The WEA was founded in 1903. The working men and women, in the beginning of this century did not usually have the opportunities of full-time schooling. Their school education often terminated at the age of thirteen, sometimes even earlier at

twelve. The W.E.A. was founded to offer educational facilities for the labouring men and women. The educational deficiency of the workers generally manifested itself in defective reading, and inaccuracy of expression of speech or writing.

Tutorial Classes: Tutorial classes were held with the clear and categorical objective to train them in these essential skills, and also in some other subjects generally taught and studied in the Tutorial classes are related to the aspects of personal and social behaviour. The main aim of the W. E. A. is to promote education for social purposes. The courses are non-vocational, and comprise of History. Economics, Politics, International Relations, Industrial Relations, Sociology, Social Philosophy, Literature, Music, Psychology, Biology, Botanp, Gology or other subjects that the member-students may choose to study, and the tutors may be competent to teach. The Tutorial classes were at first planned to continue for two years, but were later on extended to three years according to exigency. No examinations are held, and no certificates are awarded. But written exercises are often insted upon .

6.5 Organizational Set-up

A dozen or more people in any locality may form themselves into a class if they agree on a subject for study as well as time and place for meeting. A tutor is supplied by the W.E.A. The tutor draws up a syllabus and a list of books. The syllabus is scrutinized by the member-students themselves who may like to know whether this is the kind of things they want to study. Also the academic value of the syllabus has got to be vetted by the representatives of the University. The National Library Service through the local public library supplies books and journals etc. Anybody over sixteen years is eligible for membership of the class. The Local Education Authority finances

the W.E.A. classes, and receives proportionate grant from the government. The Ministry of Education pays to the extent of 75% of the Tutor's salary, the remaining 25% and necessary incidental charges have to be found by the W.E.A. The W.E.A. has branches all over the country, which is divided into a number of W.E.A. districts for administrative convenience. Each district has a Council and an Executive with a General-Secretary and a full-time Organizing Secretary. These two officials excepted all others are non-paid voluntary workers.

Three years, as already said, is the duration of these part-time tutorial courses. Each session comprises twenty-four weekly meetings usually held during the winter months from September to March. Each meeting lasts for two hours. A standard roughly equivalent to University Honours is aimed at.

6.6 Role of Universities

The University Tutorial classes including Workers' Education are supposed to be the most remarkable contribution to adult education made by the British Universities. Very close co-operation between the Universities and the W.E.A. resulted in what is known as the Rochdale class, which started its session in 1908. Except for the brief interruptions during the two wars these extra-mural activities of Oxford, Cambridge and London in particular, continued very satisfactorily. The number of such classes sponsored by the different Universities were in thousands. The annual report of the development of Adult Education Southampton will show the types of activities being arranged by the universities in U.K.

6.7 Annual Report of the Department of Adult Education Southampton For 1981-82

This quite exceptional year has, of course, been dominated by the financial situation of the University. And, for the 'extra mural' side of our work, there have been even

greater pressures than for other colleagues. Debate about the complexities of our funding arrangements, the requirement to generate a substantially increased amount of fee income and discussions which have led to the net loss of two academic and two clerical staff through voluntary sverance/early retirement have certainly been time consuming and frequently unproductive. The volume and quality of our 'extra mural' work (via the External Studies Divison) has been maintained, post-graduate studies in adult education continue to grow and our commitment to international studies has been strengthened. The link with Tenzania has been especially producted four of the seven full-time post-graduate students studying adult education of this group, three are currently registered for Ph.D. Additionally, the Department has received a £49,000 research grant from ODA to study the training of African adult educators in the U.K., Sierra Leone and Tanzania. And the Department also promoted a study tour of Tanzania (August 1981) including 27 students and a strenuous schedule in the remote southern region.

In connection with the research programme. Professor Fordham visited both Sierra Leone and Ghana, to discuss local field work arrangements and other possibilities for academic co-operation in the future.

New opportunities for more traditional extension have also been pursued. Among other things, the Department has organised one of a series of regional conferences designed to promote discussion of educational opportunities for the elderly.

The Training and Research Unit has been heavily involved in the international activities referred to above. Dr. Yosiah Bwatwa, Senior Lecturer in Adult Education, Department of Education, University of Dares Salaam, has spent a sabbatical year at Southampton. John Fox spent a sabbatical autumn term teaching on the B.Ed. degree

course in adult education at the University of Dar es Salaam. Brian Hughes spent part of the spring term teaching adult psychology at the Institute of Adult Education, Dar es Salaam, while Joseph Mutangira, Lecturer in Adult Education, Dar es Salaam spent the summer term on attachment in Southampton.

The ODA research project referred to above is directed by the Unit's Chairman, John Fox, and will be conducted by an international team drawn from all four countries. A first meeting has been held and instruments are now being prepared and piloted.

Post-graduate studies in adult education have continued to expand and are now firmly established as part of the Faculty's MA (Ed.), Advanced Diploma and research degree programmes.

The Unit has also now laid the foundations for a substantial continuing education programme for adult educators employed both in education and in the helping professions. Monica Hayes has consolidated the programme of short courses in communication studies for public service and has begun an experimental programme of similar courses for industrial managers. The advantage of developing such a programme from a Department of Adult Education is that it appeals to a range of professional groups: the courses are problem-centred rather than subject centred, and they often recruit a mix of professional and voluntary workers from a variety of institutions and agencies.

Besides heavy organising commitments, in-service work also brings involvement in consultancies. Both John Fox and Monica Hayes have worked on the New Educational Programme at HM Detention Centre, Hasler. This has involved a series of training courses for education staff, probation staff and prison officers who will be running an education programme which has both group and individual counselling as the main elements.

Defence Studies Unit. During the year under review the programme of defence studies, which in the previous year had been cancelled for financial reasons, was reinstated. The topics of this year's seminars were: British Defence Policy; Options and Constraints; Latin America since 1959; The Soviet Union and Eastern Europe; The Impact of New Military Technology on the British Armed Forces; The Gulf Area, Conflict and Intervention; and National Security and Society in Britain and West Germany. Among the speakers were Field Marshal Lord Carver, Admiral Sir James Eberle, General Sir Hugh Beach, Group Captain R.A. Mason and Professor Lawrence Freedman. The Extra Mural Division of the School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London, again gave valuable assistance in organising these seminars.

The Department continued to be involved in an extensive programme of courses for the Army PQS I and PQS II examination. Courses of Civil Air Transport and Practical Helicopter Operations were arranged on behalf of the RAF and in collaboration with the Department of Aeronautics and Astronautics.

The External Studies Division has this year been helped more than ever by its external contacts in the region. At a time when it seemed possible that very large cuts in the programme might be required, adult students from classes run jointly with the Workers' Educational Association and from the University's independent programme made clear their support for the Division's work. And although we have had to plan an increased programme for 1982-83 with reduced staff and other resources, it seems like that we can at least maintain our work at present levels.

On the side of growth and development there are a number of programmes which are worthy of note. An ambitious study tour of Tanzania was undertaken linked

closely to the Southampton based seminar work in development studies. Courses for School Governors have been constrained only by the availability of suitable teaching staff, ten courses in nine centres in Hampshire were attended by over 240 Governors. Broadcasts (Radio Solent) linked to field visits have been extended and the highly successful interdisciplinary courses on The Victorian Age and The Renaissance continued for a second year. These and many other programmes are possible only because of good and co-operative relations with outside bodies, notably the WEA, the Local Education Authorities and voluntary associations like the Mary Rose Trust (Maritime History). We thank all of these and others too numerous to mention.

Another new development has been undertaken jointly with the Department of English. This Return to study course involves 30 two hour meetings over 3 terms plus a residential school. It is designed for adults who wish to study English for degrees and other qualifications but who do not have 'A' levels.

Finally, it should be noted that there has been a modest but significant increase in work with trades unions, due largely to the careful preparatory work undertaken by Andy Watterson. In particular, his expertise in Health and Safety matters has been put to very good use both for the TUC and for individual unions (ASTMS, NUPE, GMWU).

Links with Other Bodies : The support of the Department's students in the face of suggested cuts in funds has already been noted above. We are, of course, part of a regional service, and that service depends on the continuance of good working relationships with other organisations, especially the LEAs and the WEA.

Conferences, Public Lectures and Other Staff Activities : Stuart Drummond is a Governor of Barton Peveril College and spent the summer semester 1982 as

Visting Professor at Johann Wolfgang Goethe University, Frankfurt lecturing on Britain's European policy since 1945 and on Decolonisation in Asia. David Braddock and John Pimlott are both on their respective Education Committees (Dorset and Hampshire), the former as co-opted and the latter as an elected member. The new Adult Education Institutes in Hampshire have representatives from the Responsible Bodies and 13 members of the Department are currently representing the University on the various Management Committees.

Paul Fordham is also the University representative on the Universities Council for Adult Education, including its Executive Committee and from there has been appointed to the Executive Committee of the National Institute of Adult Education. Edgar Feuchtwanger is a member of the Leo Boeck Institute; he is also a member of the International Institute for strategic studies.

Jo Bossanyi and Eric Kay organised the September 1981 Conference of the Science Tutors of Extra-Mural/Adult Education Departments.

Jo Bossanyi is a member of the informal liaison group on Environmental Education which involves Southampton staff and the Centre d'Etudes Superieures d'Amenagement of the University of Tours in France.

Edwin Course is Treasurer of the Hampshire Archaeology Committee and of the Organisation of Teachers of Transport Studies. Among his other activities he is also General Editor of the Portsmouth Papers Advisory Panel, Secretary of the Education Group of the Association for Industrial Archaeology and Secretary of Group 12 of the Advisory Committee on Industrial Archaeology of the Council of British Archaeology.

Robert Douch organised the Annual General Meeting of the Historical Association held in Southampton at Easter 1982.

Bill Jones is a member of the UCACE Working Party on the Role of the Part-Time Tutor.

David Johnston read a paper at the III Colloquio Internazionale sul Mosaico Antico at Ravenna and another at International Symposium on Roman Provincial Wall Painting at Cambridge. He is also Honorary Secretary of the Standing Committee of Tutors in Archaeology and Honorary Treasurer of the Council for British Archaeology, Group XII. He is also British Correspondent for the Association Internationale pour l'Etude de La Mosaïque Ancienne and an executive member of the British Association for the Study and Preservation of Roman Mosaics. Andrew Watterson is Joint Editor of the Southampton Work Hazards Advisory Committee Bulletin.

Social Studies: During the twentieth century "Social Studies", of all subjects, predominated the Tutorial courses from the popularity point of view. This may be regarded as an indisputable pointer to the impact that this momentous period of social change bore upon this movement and vice versa. The worker-students' own experience of the new changes—social, political and economic—is most valuable, and deeply affects the outlook of their tutors and others.

6.8 Village College :

The rural districts lack in certain cultural amenities usually available in towns. The Village Colleges in England serve as Community Cultural Centres providing such amenities. Recreational activities including drama, music and dances are planned and organized. Classes for formal education for those who need it are also held. The Village College functions as a school for children in the morning and as a cultural centre for adults in the evening. Vocational groups are given training in craftwork such as carpentry, looking, laundry, tailoring etc. Courses on improved agricultural methods and implements are offered

for the benefit of the farmers. Lessons on book-keeping, stenography and foreign languages are given by experts. The Village College at Impington in Cambridgeshire founded in 1939 is a well-known institution of this kind.

No membership fees are charged, but special services offered are usually paid for by the beneficiaries. The lecture halls and meeting-rooms are sometimes let out on moderate rental, and fetch some revenue. There are a few paid workers. They are ably and willingly assisted by volunteers. At Impington, for example, village women work in shifts to prepare and serve meals and snacks in the attached canteen. The Education Act of 1944 authorises the Country Councils to set up Community Centres and levy taxes for that purpose. The Ministry of Education also makes grants to the Village Colleges by way of supplementing the taxes. Besides, there are endowments to provide financial support to these institutions.

Briefly speaking, the Village Colleges are planned and organized as co-operative undertakings of the people to secure for themselves such educational and cultural amenities as are usually the privileges of the townsfolk.

6.9 Mature Students against the Odds :

In 1979, over two million men and women over the age of 18, enrolled for classes in Adult Education Centres and Colleges classes which ranged from car maintenance and yoga to Spanish and Pre-haeology and from 'O' level to high level training courses in Engineering and Business Studies.

At the same time, there were some 50,000 adults studying on part-time basis with the Open University and further 20,000 on full time degree courses in Universities and Polytechnics.

Many had been unsuccessful or not interested at school only to become highly motivated in later life. These

students attend for fun or interest or to obtain qualification or to train/retrain for a cases.

There is no such thing as typical student and no single reason for returning to study, redundancy; the need for skills; the desire to study a particular topic; an interest in trade union activities; a desire to keep up with the children; to change career; to make up for lost opportunities—any one of these may lead a mature adult to become a student.

Age means very little. What is important is that when individuals reach a stage in life when they badly want, or need more education, then that is likely to be the right time for them.

Where to go to Find out about Education and Training Opportunities : If you think you would like to undertake courses of study as an adult, try to find someone who has :

1. A wide range of information about all sorts of opportunities for mature students, entry qualifications, special schemes, funding career implications.
2. The experience and background to be able to offer guidance and alternative routes, implications of certain courses of action and possible problems, so that you can make up your mind what you want to do. Be prepared to persist. If people are unhelpful, do not give up. Try somewhere else.

Check & Recheck : Do not accept one person's opinion, however well informed he or she appears to be. Make sure you have canvassed all shades of opinion. Only then can you be in a position to make informed decision.

Who To Try :

1. Libraries, Citizens. Advice Bureaus. Information Centres.
2. An independent guidance service for adults.

3. Your LEA career service (Ask for specialist in the educational and vocational guidance of adults).
4. The Open University (a senior counsellor).
5. Universities and polytechnics (departments of extramural studies or divisions/departments of continuing education).
6. Colleges of further education or adult centres (a member of academic staff who has responsibility for mature students).
7. Employment advisor of your local job centre and/or training opportunities advisor at TSD regional office.

Learning Opportunities : Who Provides What ?

Learning opportunities are provided by radio and T.V., correspondence colleges, adult education centres, colleges of further education (sometimes also called colleges of technology) Universities or polytechnical departments of extramural studies or departments/divisions of continuing education, long term residential colleges, government skill centres, or institutions of higher education, colleges of education, polytechnics or universities.

It is all a question of what you want. Get information from more than one source.

Give Yourself Time : If you are applying for a rigorous course like a degree course, take time to prepare :

Where to Try :

1. Radio and T.V. education programme.
2. Correspondence Colleges.
3. Adult education centres and colleges of further education.
4. Universities or polytechnic departments of extramural studies or continuing education.

5. Long term residential colleges.
6. Government Skill Centres.
7. Colleges or Institutions of higher education.
8. Polytechnics.
9. Universities (other than Open University).
10. Worker's Educational Association.
11. The Open University.

6.10 Educational Opportunities for Handicapped Adults :

If you are handicapped, it is important that you get the best training and education, you can in order to compete with the able bodied in the job-market.

1. If you need training for a specific job : Contact Disablement Resettlement Officer with your local job centre and ask what opportunities are available.
2. If you wish to improve your general educational qualification : Contact your LEA, your job centre and ask what opportunities are available.
3. Write to the National Bureau for Handicapped Students (NBHS) at 40 Brunswich Square, London WC1N 1AZ.
4. If you wish to obtain a place on degree Course, and have discussed possibilities with NBHS, write to the College/University of your choice and ask whether they have an advisor for disabled students. If so, ask for an appointment and discuss possibilities.
5. **Be honest :** Do not conceal your handicap or the educational institution of your choice cannot help.
6. If you cannot attend a day or residential student, or prefer to stay at home apply to Open University. The University Academic year starts in January. Try to apply an year ahead, if possible.

6.11 Think Ahead :

If applying for a degree course, plan at least a year ahead :

1. Write to Universities, polytechnics or Colleges of higher education.
2. For University admission write to Universities Council on Admission (UCCA) for the leaflet. How to apply for admission in Universities ?
3. If you are not 'A level' ask for scheme for mature students to the colleges of your choice.
4. If asking for polytechnic or college of higher education ask for prospectus and forms of application.
5. Try to see advisor for mature students and meet mature students who are doing some course.
6. At Universities of Birmingham, Lads, Liverpool, Manchester or Sheffield, write for a leaflet A University Degree—A second chance at +21.
7. Make enquiries about grants.
8. If you want admission for Open University your form must reach by 1st June, of the year.
9. Prepare yourself thoroughly for interview.

6.12 Finances :

The main sources of finances are, LEA; M.S.C.; DES Research Council; DHSS; employers and professional bodies; educational charities.

1. LEA's—The types of grants—mandatory grants for 'designated' courses and discretionary grants for 'non-designated' courses.
2. Manpower Service Commission (MSC)—The training Division (TSD) of MSC run and run training opportunities scheme (TOPS) and will sponsor adults for full time training and retraining

courses for a period of 52 weeks—Tops allowances are tax free.

3. Department of Education and Science (DES)—The (DES) will provide some business for students accepted at long term residential colleges.
4. Research Council—Ask for information.
5. Department of Health and Social Security (DHSS)—pays grants for courses classified as 'auxillary medical work' and probation officer training courses.
6. Employees or Professional Bodies : Ask for the list from Careers and Occupational Information Centre at Manpower Service Commission, Sheffield.
9. Educational Charities—Some charities fund small amounts of money.

6.13 Points to Consider Before Becoming a Student

It will affect not only your own life but the life of the whole family :

- Your standard of living may fall.
 - Time spent with family or parents may be reduced.
 - You may have to compromise your domestic standard.
 - Children may have less support.
2. Discuss with other mature students in order to know how demanding a course is.
 3. Take final decision considering all difficulties and problems.

6.14 Open University :

"No student on the campus—but a professor in every room" is the concept of open university of British feudal society, created under the pressure of its depressed section for universal demand of equalising educational opportuni-

ties by way of expansion of higher education. It has the same status as any other British University. Although the Royal Charter was granted only in 1969, it took birth in 1971, in Walton Hall, Milton Keynes, England, as a result of modernisation; improvement, alteration and localisation in the philosophy of teaching through correspondence and other mass media. In 1963, Mr. Wilson, conceived of the idea of expanding higher education by combining correspondence courses with television and radio broadcasts, by way of adding to it some personal contact of the students with the teachers. When, he became Minister, he appointed a committee in 1967 under the Chairmanship of Jennie Lee, who submitted his report in 1969. It took two years to plan. It was too short a time for such a venture.

In U. K. the elite, for quite sometime, had managed to exploit the lower strata of the society, under the cover of equalising educational opportunities, by introducing streaming and making restricted admission in universities as they could always manage to place the edge of their wards over the wards of depressed section of the society, firstly, by bringing them up in better socio-cultural atmosphere and then by giving them education in great public schools or prestigious grammar schools. The result was a vicious circle, where by the rich parents were mostly able to give the best education to their wards and there by managing high positions for them in business, industry and administration. The doors of higher education were mostly closed to the man in the street. This hard hit sect of the society made a demand for opening the avenues of higher education to them as most of them, either did not have physical facilities or the time to attend the full time courses being so employed or otherwise also. The recognition that there were a good number of people who had the potential for higher education but did not get it, along with the need for higher education for various stages of career changing technology, further activated the demand.

The British economy is neither so developed nor so framed that it could afford the expansion of higher education like United States of America, where on the average, one college a week is being opened for universalizing higher education. British, having their deep conviction in maintenance of standard for developing their higher brain so as to compete in the world market, had so managed their higher education that it became almost impracticable to earn and learn at the same time, so that all the expenses of university education were paid by the government. They could not compromise with the idea of expanding higher education with health problem, like the Indian College. The Russian technique of teaching through correspondence did not appeal them, for want of tutorial system. These limitations, local convictions and unbearable pressure from the masses, limited facilities or admission in higher education to 15% of college and going population only made Britishers to think of the Open University which is the full scope multi-media system of higher education. It enabled many anxious students to study for degree or other higher education on part time basis, in their own homes and at their own speed. It is flourishing like anything and has increased the intake tremendously. Most of the less developed countries like India have opened such Universities in their own countries. In India, Indra Gandhi National Open University has been established on these lines in New Delhi.

During the first years of operation the University initiated undergraduate courses in arts, sciences, social sciences and mathematics. During 1972 undergraduate courses were started in educational studies, and technology. Professional training and "up-dating" courses (called the open-university jargon post-experience courses) are also just beginning. The post-graduate programme leading to higher degrees, have also started.

1. No formal academics are necessary to join any course in the Open University, except ability to fill in the application form.
2. The students can continue to study at their own speed. They can complete from 1/2 credits to 2 credits a year.
3. The students can appear in any examination they like, after completing the laid down formalities.
4. No selection for admission is made. All those who apply within the time limit, are admitted on the basis of first come first serve.
5. No upper age limit, is prescribed. Some have joined it at the wrong side of sixties.

Mechanics of Open University : Basically it was a project for adult education, but a change has been made in January, 1974 by allowing the admission of students at the age of 18 years. At the moment there are three operations, (1) the undergraduate programme in six major areas of arts, social sciences, sciences, technology, mathematics and educational studies (2) post-experience courses serving students or persons who want to change their occupation or up-to-date their knowledge; (3) and a postgraduate programme for people who want to study for a higher degree. In fact, open university does not admit students for degree, but do it for courses. When one adds so many courses to his credit that these can form a degree, it is awarded. For example a B.A. degree consists of six credits and an nonours degree can be got after accumulating eight courses. Each credit needs a study of 10 hours a week sustained over a period of 34 weeks.

Various methods are used to educate the students. The syllabus of a credit is split up into a number of units which form basis for lessons, which are got written, edited

reviewed and approved. The lessons carry assignments which are to be sent back by the students regularly. Television and radio broadcasts are invariably used for lectures. Those involved in these services are at least graduates in the subject concerned. Tape records and reading lists are essential features of the service. The authorities have a scheme to give more coverage on television as in that case the price of the hardware is borne by the students are so widely distributed that each one of them cannot be covered with television service so it is not made compulsory.

Open University courses are designed by course teams. A course team includes subject specialists from varied disciplines: television producers, staff tutors (responsible for the link with Regional Tutorial Services), and an educational technologist (responsible for educational advice on design and assessment). The course team will have often extensive initial discussions about the aims, content and structure of the course and the over all functions of broadcasting. Responsibility for various parts of the course will then be delegated to individuals or small groups, and at each stage of development materials will be brought to the course team for comments, amendments, and approval. Ideally, the programmes and correspondence material develop in conjunction the content of each being affected by the other. The television producers, therefore, who are all graduates in the field in which they are working, are involved from the very beginning, and in fact, often make a substantial academic contribution to the course. Perhaps the most important feature of the course team, however, is that the aims, content and presentation of the course are all openly discussed and criticised by wide variety of people before the course is presented to students.

As media aides, the university uses vary combinations

of tape cassettes and records, home experiment kits, reading lists, specially published readers, comauter marked assignments and computer terminals at study centres. However, it is the university's use of open-network broadcasting which is perhaps the most interesting element.

For 1973, the open University received, directly from British Government's Department of Education and Science, approximately 23 million dollars for recurrent expenditure. Of these, just under 5 million dollars was handed over to the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) to produce and transmit approximately 300 television and 350 radio programmes on behalf of the university. These programmes are broadcast on national radio and television networks on week day evenings and Saturday and Sunday mornings. Each programme is transmitted twice. During 1973 more than 1,000 hours of transmissions were planned. Television programmes run for about 25 minutes and radio programmes about for 20 minutes. The university is rapidly expanding.

Quite apart from the initial value of the prestige and glamour brought by broadcasting to a totally new and very controversial institution, the academic needs are considerable. These are most evident in science, where television is frequently used often very effectively as a substitute for direct laboratory experience. Any reader of James Thurber can imagine the advantage of pointing a television camera down a microscope and getting the exact picture one wants to see.

These are other, perhaps less obvious, reasons also. Mostly students study very much in isolation. In particular, the lack frequent and easy direct contact not only with academics, but, perhaps much more importantly with other students. Incidentally, the lack or rather drastic reduction of social contact with other students is one reason why

we do not see ourselves as a much cheaper alternative to convocational universities. Students do not gain all the benefits of a conventional university education. However, students get benefits through broadcasting which are not available to conventional students, particularly by drawing on the extensive resources of the BBC with its vast bank of programme material and archive film. Through the use of animation, and by the construction of working studio models which would be too expensive to justify in conventional teaching, the university can provide teaching which would be impossible in other circumstances. Leading national figures and expert in every academic field have appeared in programmes for specific purposes related to the academic content of the courses.

Rather, surprisingly, television is the cheapest method of delivering audio-visual material to the students. The main reason for this is that the costs of the playback hardware are nil—these are already owned by students. In addition, there is no software. Whatever system is used to deliver audio-visual material to students will have high production costs; but it is the cost of software particularly, such as tapes, film loops, or slides which when multiplied by the number of students, make other system expensive in comparison.

The whole of the country is divided into 15 zones, which are covered by about 200 study centres. In each of the study centres, which mostly is located in some institutions and opens in evening hours, local professors from all disciplines come to attend. They are professors from local colleges, universities and polytechnic institutions. The students who are to complete one credit in one year are supposed to contact them once in two weeks or so in order to discuss their educational problems and getting back their corrected assignment from them after these have been corrected and evaluated. This satisfies the tutorial system of British ideology. Libraries through U.K. keep

some funds for buying books for Open University students. The membership for libraries of local colleges is also open to them.

Science students and students pursuing professional courses do their practical work in other universities and local colleges for which the arrangements are made by the Open University.

Needless to mention that Britishers do not consider educational process to be completed without personal contact which is arranged and is compulsory. Mostly students and teachers live together during personal contact programme and discuss academic problems. This makes them more study oriented.

About 200 academicians are employed in the campus. In addition, there are hybrids, one posted in one discipline in each of 15 regional centres. Their job is to recruit, orient, instruct and supervise the vast array of part time teachers. In December, 1973, near about 1500 persons were employed in different capacities in Walton Hall Campus with almost the same members in regional centres alongwith equal number of part-time counsellors and double the number of part-time tutors.

The grace to courses are accorded after giving weightage examination marks and the report of the part-time tutor.

At the time of admissions all those who make enquiries, are supplied with the requisite material and admission form. After sending the form, the student can discuss his problem with admission counsellor. His part-time tutor is notified to him. Full information, about the courses, syllabus, lessons, assignments, tutor, examination, television and radio broadcasts is sent to him in the first packet. Lessons are sent at regular intervals. In the month of April, full fee for the remaining part of the year is charged. This gives them a chance to drop out, if they so desire.

The experience has however, shown that near about 20% students drop out. The planning of all the activities is excellent. Lessons are allotted to the writer about an year ahead of the need of them. The programmes are chalked out quite in advance.

Finances : Open University is an exception to all other British Universities in managing their finances direct from the treasury rather than through University Grant Committee. During 1973, a sum of 23 million was provided to them as recurring expenditure. The British higher education cannot compromise with the idea that heavy fees should be charged from the students. Firstly, according to them higher education should not and is not to be evaluated in terms of economics as it might lower standards. Secondly, in U.K most of the expenditure in higher education, directly as well as indirectly, is borne by the Government, either by granting stipends and scholarships to the students or re-imbursing their university fees through L.E.A.'s. Not to talk of making Open University education an earning proposition, the idea of running it as a viable unit is not appealing to the Britishers as it will be against the philosophy of extending sections of the society. The expenditure in education, has however, been reduced the use of technology of mass media into 1/5th of the investment compared to a student in other British Universities. All funds, except 11% of the expenditure which comes as a part of fees, sales of book etc. are provided by the government.

Adult Education in Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR)

7.1 The Country and Her People :

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) is the largest country on the globe. It covers one-sixth of the surface of the earth. It extends over half of Europe and one-third of Asia. It is three times that of U. S. A. The climate varies greatly ranging from bleak polar climate in the north to sub-tropical in the south. It is dry on the southern coast of the Crimea and in certain valleys of Central Asia, humid on the Caucasian Black Sea Coast and in South-Eastern party of the Caspian Cost bordering on

Iran. Still more of the country has a temperate continental climate. It possesses one fifth of the forest wealth of the world, stretching over one-third of her territory.

The USSR has no equal in mineral wealth. It has resources of all the known metals, including vast deposits of gold and uranium. The oil deposits of USSR comprise of a considerable part of the world resources. The total iron ore and coal deposits comprise upto 40 per cent and 55 per cent of the world resources. All in all, the USSR has about one-fourth of the world's fuel resources.

Soviet Union ranks third in the world in population after China and India. In 1917, at the time of the Great October Socialist Revolution, approximately 163 million people inhabited the territory of what is now the USSR. The early years of the Young Soviet Republics were very difficult. The Civil War started by the capitalists and landowners, the intervention of fourteen foreign states, the economic blockade and ensuing privation—epidemics, famine in a number of areas—all cut down the size of population. Ever since 1922, when the Civil War and intervention ended, the population of USSR witnessed rapid increase. It reached 199 million when Nazi Germany invaded the Soviet Union in 1941. During the war 20 million Soviet citizens lost their lives. It took until 1955 to reach the pre-war population figure. Now according to Country's Statistical Board announcement it stood at 258.9 millions in 1977. Thus, notwithstanding the wars and countless hardships, the country suffered as a result the population of USSR has increased by fifty per cent in a little over half a century.

The natural growth of the population as a whole is sufficiently high, nearly 9.9 per thousand. The Soviet society and the state are interested in accelerating the rate of growth.

Marked improvement in living standards, free public

health services, the state managed social security system covering all working people—the factors have contributed to the sharp drop in the mortality rate to 1/4th and infant mortality to 1/11 of what it was in prerevolutionary times. The average life expectancy has more than doubled within this period and is now about 70 years. So far as the male-female ratio is concerned, there is still a greater proportion of women due to the war; it took twenty years after the war to reach pre war number of male inhabitants. In Soviet Union, the ratio of male to female infants is approximately 106 : 100. However, the proportion gradually changes so that after the age of 25 there are more women than men and the difference becomes increasingly greater with age.

The density of population varies greatly in USSR. The average population density for the entire country at the beginning of 1971 was 10.9 persons per square kilometer. Certain areas, especially industrial knots of Russian Federation, the Ukarina, Moldavia, and Uzbekistan are highly populated. But the vast northern regions and some of the mountaneous areas have less than one person to a square kilometer. Nearly one-fifth of the entire population of the Soviet Union lives within a 500 km radius of Moscow.

The Soviet Union's rapid and spectacular progress in the economic and social fields of life had radically changed the ratio of urban to rural dwellers. In the pre-revolutionary years, one fifth of the population was of urban cities. In 1971, it was 58 per cent. The rapid development of the national economy has led to a marked growth of urbanities. In Soviet times many cities have increased tenfold in size.

So far as the ethnic composition goes, the Soviet Union is a multi-national state. Hardly a dozen of the nationalities are composed of 1% of the population each. Nearly 60 per cent of the population is Russian, called "Real Russians". About 20% are Ukrainians. All others

are nearly 20%. Guided by the principles of Lenin's nationalities policy, the Soviet Union is making tremendous headway in gradually drawing together the large and small nationalities while playing due heed to national features, the free and harmonious development of every separate nationality, of each and every social national culture.

7.2 Social Structure :

A radical change has taken place in the social structure of the population in Soviet times. Prior to the revolution a small sized social group, the landed gentry, factory owners, rich merchants (comprising together their families, one-fortieth of the population) ruled the land. They literally held the destiny of people in their hands. In 1905, there was absolute monarchy. Czar was the supreme authority who had all the power i.e. legislative, judicial and executive.

Socialist reconstruction has worked a radical change in the class structure of the society. In Soviet Union there are no exploiters—landowners, businessmen, merchants. The kulaks—the village bourgeoisie who exploited hired labour—no longer exist. The peasantry has united in large agricultural production co-operatives, the collective farms.

At present Soviet society is made up of the working class, collective farmers, and working, intelligentia. There is a steady increase in the percentage of the people that belong to the working class—the major productive force of the new society. As the educational level of the population rises, the proportion of intellectuals keep on increasing.

There is practically no unemployment in USSR. The 1970 census showed the employment level of population to have gone up by the more than 10 per cent within the preceding eleven years. Of the 130.5 million able-bodied employables (men 16-59 years, women 16-54 years) 12 6

million or 92.4 per cent, are occupied in the national economy or study at the various secondary or high schools.

Since the average life expectancy is much greater, now, there is a far bigger proportion of people in older age groups. There are now over 42 million pensioners in the USSR. More than seven million continue to work, and, in addition to their regular wages, get their pension or a part of it depending on their occupation and earnings.

In pre-revolutionary Russia more than 66% of the population was illiterate, while now this menace is totally uprooted in that country. The Czar discriminated against minority nationalities and prevented the use of local language and native religion, and education through local language is the law of the land whereas religion is not tolerated in official life, it is not interfered within private life.

7.3 The Principles of Education in the USSR :

In 1971 the General Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist party of the Soviet Union, Leonid Brezhneve told that :

"The society we are building, presupposes high educational standards of the people as a whole and a rich cultural life. In the current five-year plan period the transition to universal secondary education is to be completed throughout the country."

The Soviet system provides free education for all citizens and also provides the necessary condition for all to take full advantage of the educational opportunities. All citizens have equal opportunities to obtain a higher education at universities or institutes. Article 121 of the Constitution of the USSR states :

"Citizens of the USSR have the right to education.

This right is ensured by universal compulsory eight-year education; by extensive development of secondary polytechnical education, vocational-technical education, and secondary specialized and higher education based on close ties between the school real life and production activities, by the utmost development of evening and extra-mural".

This now means compulsory and free 10-year secondary education which normally is completed at the age of 17 or 18.

The entire system of education in the Soviet Union, from nursery school to institute or university, is a single system of consecutive stages. The main principles of the socialist organization of education, is ensuring equal opportunity to all citizens.

The Soviet school has been developing from the start as the school of general education called upon to equip its pupils with the knowledge which is indispensable to all round development of the personality, to the formation of a scientific world outlook and to the development of a capacity for creative work. Basically uniform curricula and syllabuses as well as the uniform principles on which instruction and extra-curricular activities are organized provide for the uniformity of the school.

Their based theory-and-practice principle presupposes that the pupils assimilate knowledge in the process of practical activity building models, conducting experiments and working in training shops or experimental plots so as to be able to apply their knowledge in practice in the course of their future work.

The schools equips its pupils with a complex of polytechnical knowledge and skills.

The education system is based on the following progressive democratic principles.

1. All schools are set up, maintained and run by the state. This provides for the uniformity and continuity of the entire educational process and for the correct planning and provision of facilities.
2. The state education system rules out chance and lack of coordination in the organization of education, making it impossible for education to depend on private or public charity of any kind.
3. In the Soviet Union, in which the church, is separated from the state and the school is separated from the church, education is built on the principle of genuine freedom of thought on scientific materialist basis.
4. People of any nationality have the right to attend school and pre-school institutions, enroll themselves at any educational institutions in the country and receive education in their native language.
5. At each stage of education—pre-school, primary, secondary and higher—boys and girls, young men and women study together. Girls and young women are enrolled at technical secondary and higher schools on an equal footing with boys and young men.
6. Teachers, both men and women, receive equal pay for equal work, enjoy equal right to retirement pensions, seniority, and so on.
7. Members of the public take an active part in the work of nursery schools, schools, and other educational institutions. Enterprises assuming sponsorship of schools is a good tradition which sprang up very early under Soviet Government. Sponsorship does not amount merely to help in fitting the school workshop or improve its material and technical resources. It also enables groups

of workers to help mould the children's view of life and to teach them to respect labour traditions. It makes it possible for collectives of working people to take an active interest in children's progress at school at their department, and to contribute to their aesthetic education. Sponsorship is a form of friendship between two generations.

8. At all schools there are parents' committees which are elected by the parents at the beginning of each school year.
9. Admission to educational institutions is not regulated by privileges or restrictions as regards nationality, race, sex or social status, and this ensures to everyone equal rights in the sphere of education. In the country's schools teaching is being conducted in 51 languages of the peoples of the USSR, in accordance with the will of parents.
10. The accessibility of education is guaranteed by free instruction at all levels, by a wide network of educational institutions, and by state grants to all students of universities, institutes and specialized secondary schools. The numerous evening and correspondence schools, both secondary and higher, enable people who are working to receive an education without discontinuing work.
11. The combination of instruction with work experience, with the practice of building communism, is effected at all stages of education.
12. The Soviet system of education and upbringing has brought millions of children of workers and peasants into contact with knowledge, it systematically strengthens society's intellectual potential

with fresh forces from the people, and has opened up real possibilities for the working man to develop his personality and apply his abilities.

13. The Soviet Union is the first country in the world to achieve universal literacy. Compulsory education starts when the child is 7 years of age. Education of standard has been going on advancing with economic building up and improvement of technology. It was introduced for four years in 1930 and completed in 1933. In 1949, it was enhanced to a period of seven years and completed in 1951. It was further made compulsory for a period of 8 years in 1959 and the target was achieved in 1962. In 1966, ten years compulsory schooling was introduced, and was to be completed in 1970-71.
14. The impact of the Communist party is quite strong upon the education system. It formulates major educational policies and has a sub-committee for school education. In planning for education the programme of the party serves as a statement of goals, in the light of which the organisation requirements are worked out and the tasks are set for the national, local and annual plans.
15. In USSR, a good deal of work goes on in the field of education as a result of which it undergoes rapid changes. It is why that Herbert C. Rudman has said "One of the inherent risks of writing about some aspects of Soviet life is the likelihood that before a manuscript is published, it may well be obsolete."
16. In the field of higher education, the stress is on education in science and technology. Part-time education is justified both socially and economi-

cally and is encouraged through evening and shift classes and correspondence courses.

17. The love for the country and communist party is developed amongst the youth.

7.4 Historical Development :

Maru did not prepare a blue-print on education. In place, he provided a frame work of ideas and guiding principles, i.e. the need for productive work in the shaping of man's nature and closely combing it with learning. He wanted practical approach in place of theoretical thinking.

After the revolution of 1917, the "Clean Sweep" movement invaded education, like all other spheres of life. Accordingly, the restrictions of admission in higher institutions were done away with. Illiteracy liquidation schemes, new innovations and experimentation dominated the field. John Dewey, project method, Dalton plan, polytechnic education came into practice without any cohesiveness, till Stalin tightened up the system in 1930's by way of prohibiting the experimentation. As a result of the First World War, Russia needed firstly, highly skilled professional and technical workers; secondly, skilled workers to man and instal industries, and thirdly, mass literacy. To achieve these aims, educational administration was tightened up, strict discipline, formal lessons, strict examinations and other restricts of Tsarist time were reimposed, with the only difference that it was all planned, open to the masses and in line with the social and economic needs of the country. The Communist ideology was made such an important part of education and was woven around in such a way that it helped in creating a new type of "New Man" and a new kind of society. Communist ideology as an independent discipline was taught through lesson on moral education, use of slogans and posters and also through organizations.

According to Marxist-Leninist point of view education is to be spread on mass basis and streaming like Great Britain at 11 or at any other stage is forbidden, as such policy of comprehensive schooling is followed. Only a small number of schools for specially gifted exist. Students are not grouped according to ability, but are mixed so that the lesser bright should encourage others to take them along with them. This results in valuable social training.

In 1958, Khrushchov reforms were introduced as a result of which seven-year school gave way to eight year comprehensive school, followed by secondary polytechnical school (3 years Course) or professional course at a technical or epecialized secondary school (4 years course) or a simple trade course at a Vocational Technical School (6 months to three years). After Khrushchov, in 1964, the importance of polytechnical education in general courses of pupils, was decreased to 1/4th from 1/3rd of their curriculum. However, great difference of opinion might be about it, it goes without saying that the philosophy of linking education productive work, i.e. strengthening the ties of school with actual life, is deeply rooted in Communist philosophy of education. In the words of Lenin, "We do not believe in the value of study, of education and of teaching, if they must be limited to the school and cut off from the life."

7.5 Removal of Illiteracy :

The progress of mass-literacy in Soviet Russia is as astonishing as its achievements in the various fields of science and technology. The all-Russian Census of 1897 recorded a literacy percentage below 24. That among the non-slave minorities in the north and east, i.e. among the Tadjiks, Uzbeks, Turkomenians, Kirghiz and Yakuts etc., was even less—in some cases as applingly low as 5%. And many of these tribes had no written language or script at all. There was no noteworthy change in the cultural level of the people during the following twenty years.

The Lenin Decree : A massive movement for wiping out illiteracy was initiated almost immediately after the outbreak of the Great October Revolution in 1917. Knowledge is the real source of power, and the masses of people could not be imbued with the spirit of communist culture without the aid of education. Even before the Civil war had been won, the new regime firmly installed, the Soviet Government issued a decree signed by Vladimir Lenin, Chairman of the Council of Peoples' Commissars (Ministers) in 1919, in which it was stated that all the adult illiterate inhabitants of the Republic between the ages of 18 and 50 were required to learn to read and write in Russian or in their own language.

'Likpunkts' (points for the liquidation of illiteracy) were set up at all available places—churches, schools, clubs, factories and offices, etc. These houses were commandeered if necessary, and all employed workers were enabled to attend the classes for two hours a day without any wage-cut.

A Vigorous Campaign : The movement was launched with a fanfare of propaganda and publicity. Hundreds of thousands of posters, copies of the Lenin decree, slogans and appeals were printed and circulated throughout the country. Special short term training courses were organised in the regions and districts with a view to training teachers and instructors in the technique of adult-teaching.

The above preliminary measures were followed up by the foundation of a special and permanent organisation the "all-Russia Extra-ordinary Commission for the Eradication of Illiteracy" on June 19, 1920. Another public society called the "Down with Illiteracy Committee" was founded in 1923 to promote and strengthen the programme under the Chairmanship of Mikhail Ivanovich Kalinin, Chairman of

the Central Executive Committee (now called the Presidium).

The Extraordinary Commission for the Liquidation of Illiteracy set itself the task of making the entire population literate by 1927, the tenth anniversary of the Revolution by vigorously pursuing this movement, which they called a 'cultural campaign.' Funds were provided by the local Soviets supplemented by the Central Government. The first target could not, however, be reached by 1927. But, attendance at the 'Likpunkts' exceeded one million. The number rose rapidly from year to year; two million in 1928-29, eight million in 1929-30 and eleven million in 1930-31. Over forty million persons were counted as having attained literacy as a result of these efforts during 15 years from the promulgation of the famous decree on the abolition of illiteracy. General compulsory education for all children aged 8-12 was introduced throughout Russia in 1930-32. The final objective seems to have been substantially attained during the Second Five-Year Plan period (1933-37). By 1946, i.e. within thirty years the population of the U.S.S.R. may be said to have achieved wholesale literacy more or less.

But it has ceased to be any mass problem. The achievement is, however, phenomenal. This miracle has been performed solely by the people themselves effectively aided and inspired by the Government and the leaders, who were convinced that so long as the people remained illiterate, they were bound to remain impervious to the new culture and way of life. The problem was tackled with a firm resolve and sustained efforts. To those hesitant and wavering spirits who are content with the wishful thinking that somehow, sometime this problem will find its own solution, the Russian example will surely be an eye-opener. Half hearted measures are worse than nothing. What is needed today in India adequate provision-financial and organisational—for the purpose.

In order to prevent the newly made literates from relapsing into illiteracy the extensive anti-illiteracy drive, adequate measures to provide further education to the neo-literature and the semi-literates were also taken specially from 1927 onwards. The masses may acquire a steady habit of reading and writing only if suitable books are made available to them. The following steps were taken in this direction :

(a) Production of Literature

Discrepancies in the spelling of related languages were abolished and standard simpler spellings were introduced. "The Down with Illiteracy Society" set itself to the specialised task of producing and publishing literature for mass consumption. Newspapers, books, journals, folders and posters were printed, and distributed on a mass-scale amongst the intending readers. In one year 1936, in particular, 67 millions of pages of literature were printed in non-Russian vernaculars to cater for the semi-literates. The topics dealt were politics, popular science to finishing, trapping, etc. The study of folklore was pursued and encouraged. In the Thirties, language specialists made exploratory excursions over the vast country in search of raw materials and untapped natural resources. These materials were carefully examined and used as reading materials for the newly awakened masses of people. Old tunes, old epithets and hyperboles were adapted and applied to new themes and the new heroes.

(b) Role of Journalism

Enterprising and patriotic publishers brought out special periodicals and journals regardless of financial consequences for the benefit of the new-literates. Incentives were provided to the newly-literated writers by offering them appointment as village correspondents. Contributions by the semi literates dealing with their personal aims and experiences were readily accepted and published.

(c) Methodology

The method adopted in teaching adults was to begin with 'whole words'. It was later replaced by an analytical-synthetical method. Familiar words were analyzed into sounds i. e. syllables, and syllables were synthesized into words. This technique proved quicker and more effective than visual memory upon which the whole-word or sentence method is conceived. The element of logical reasoning involved in learning to spell the words as combinations of phonetical units (syllables) proves more interesting to the reader. Only a few letters similar in sound and shape and not in the alphabetical order are taught at first. Thus the learner understands how words are built up by sounds. As more and more letters are mastered more and more words are built up and learnt.

(d) Training of Adult Educators :

Some of the important aspects of the work of adult teaching are :

- (i) Training of the workers to combat illiteracy.
- (ii) Preparation of programmes, text-book and method of instruction etc.
- (iii) Devising ways of determining the ability and progress of the adult pupils attending the classes.
- (iv) Study of individual and group problems and techniques of working with mixed groups.

An army of trained workers was recruited. Most of the workers in the beginning had no special pedagogical training. They were, therefore, asked to attend a refresher course in Russian and other languages and Arithmetic every year. Similar courses were also organized for the workers who were to teach the semi-literates. The programmes for these training courses included the study of the methods of teaching Reading, Writing, Grammar, Arithmetic and Geography.

Technical and methodological guidance was given by the trained school teachers and other experts to the literacy campaign workers in the following manner :

- (a) Short training course.
- (b) Supervision of the teaching work of the trainees.
- (c) Conferences of the campaign workers.
- (d) Supply of guide-books to the workers.

They helped the adult-educators in organizing homogeneous groups of students and in assessing their special needs, problems and characteristics. They also helped in planning the lessons. Methodological notes dealing with questions relating to the actual processes of reading, writing and counting, teaching of the metric system, the method of individual and group-books and newspapers, and many other things were prepared, published and exchanged. Periodical seminars were frequently organized at different places to enable the specialists and field workers to meet as often as necessary and discuss their problems.

7.6 Education for Adults in USSR

In 1984, 50 million Soviet people have been upgrading their skills and acquiring new professions. Over the past few years the training of adults has become a large and regular branch of education. Economists throughout the world have to reckon with the fact that during the last 25 to 35 years of their working life people upgrade their industrial qualifications six, seven or even eight times. A Soviet worker today has both to improve his skills and learn new trades. As there is a shortage of labour, every worker is trained in two or three related occupations. This enables workers to replace one another in different teams and sections of production.

An other aspect of the problem concerns the close connection between new occupations, the latest technology

and intellectualisation of labour. Such occupations are very popular amongst workers. The role played by workers in science, where experimental facilities have acquired an industrial character, is rapidly growing. The field involves over one million of the best trained and most versatile workers. It is a great honour for a worker to be admitted to an experimental establishment.

Experience has shown that technical modernisation has led to the intellectualization of working people in many areas of production. The volume of mental effort put in by steel-makers operating electric furnance is about 70 per cent; the figure for adjustment on flow lines is 95 percent.

In 1984, Soviet workers were learning to handle 3900 new types of machinery, equipment, devices and materials. About 2200 obsolete commodities were no longer to be produced and ineffective technological processes were to be replaced.

In the 12th Five Year Plan, which ended with the second half of eighties, priorities were given to train skilled personnel and upgrading their skills so that they could cope with the new equipment and automatic processes involving computers, robots, microprocessors and advanced technology.

Scientists have already tackled the problem of automation in design wrok. They will further utilise the experience accumulated by the USSR Academy of Sciences and several establishments of higher learning. The practice is expected to flow in the next Five Year Plans.

The large-scale introduction of computerised designing, according to the well known Soviet Socialists, Americian Guri Marchuck, will be of great social significance. He believes that automated designing will improve the qualification of designers who will learn advanced computer technology and techniques.

Even to-day workers in a wide range of occupations cannot be without practical computer skills. Therefore, both school children and adults will upgrade their knowledge at special courses and study the theory and application of computers. The task is to teach all Soviet people to operate computers.

7.7 Correspondence Courses :

In USSR, in addition to the removal of illiteracy, a good deal of education is arranged in different types of institutions. In the present days the adult education in Soviet Union is meant to serve the objectives of upgrading the skills and of acquiring new professions by Soviet citizens who in any case have been educated upto the equivalent of higher secondary which is compulsory for every Soviet child of school going age. In this sense adult education is different than what it is in India where a quite few people cannot have the benefit of education. One of these methods is Correspondence Courses. This channel is open to those who cannot make their mark in the school and get either gold or silver metals. They can go in for some jobs and also continue to study through the media of Correspondence Courses. In this way, it is one of the adult education programme.

In USSR correspondence education plays a very dynamic and constructive role in the educational process. This technology is exploited for educational purposes even at school level. In fact, all those who are not in a position to continue with their studies in regular channel are encouraged and facilities go in for this type of education so that their professional and academic development and growth should continue. In 1972, there were 500 correspondence facilities or correspondence departments attached to various universities or institutes throughout USSR. There are 16 autonomous institutions of correspondence schools. The largest of these autonomous institutions in

the all Union Correspondence Polytechnic which has ten faculties, 54 specialised with six branches in different parts of the country and 33,000 students on rolls. It trains students for diplomas as well as higher research courses, and organises a number of short refresher courses for engineers in service.

These courses are organised on all union basis under the direct supervision of the Union Ministry of Education. The courses and syllabi are the same all over the country and lessons are prepared by the Union Ministry of Education and distributed to Correspondence Courses Institutes — economy in preparation of lessons and courses material. The universities and polytechnics in different republics translate their lessons into their regional languages according to their needs. Some of the polytechnics and universities have teacher-training day, evening and correspondence education and the staff is common.

Students seeks admission to correspondence and evening courses have to take a qualifying test like day scholars.

The correspondence courses students are also required to work on a fixed number of control papers (house assignments) every year. To take the examination (credit test), they are to submit the requisite number of control papers. The remarks given by the teachers in credit tests throughout the duration of courses are recorded in the diploma (certificate) awarded to the students. The credit test held during the five years of the courses are oral tests as in case of day scholars. The students may choose any one of the five or six sets of question papers and answer the questions before a board of examination. If a student does not make the grade in the credit test, he is given ten days time to prepare and take examination again.

Those students who get continuous unsatisfactory remarks have to be withdrawn from the course. In the

final year i. e. the sixth year, the correspondence student also has the choice either to work to write thesis or to take the written examination. For sciences, technology and specialised courses the students are deputed to various institutions for practical training.

Oral examination is held in the institution. For written examination the students can choose any place convenient to him and suggest his own supervisor from amongst school teachers or other officials posted at that place after obtaining consent from the official concerned. The institution sends the question papers to that official for the conduct of examination. Teachers are allowed to take the examination during vacation. Twice a year, the students of higher education of correspondence courses are called to the institute i.e. once just after enrolment and then just before the examinations and discussions. The correspondence students are given about 30% of the lectures delivered to the day students.

In USSR, the correspondence students are given the incentive as all such education is free and students are only to pay for text-books and stationary. Brilliant and needy students are given stipends and scholarships. Where they are called for the personal contact programme or examination, they are given air or rail journey expenses. They are given paid leave for the duration of contact programme in addition to regular privilege leave, for examination and practical laboratory work. In the fifth or the sixth year of the study, the students of correspondence courses can draw a day off every week. In the final year the students are given three or four months full pay leave for the preparation of examination or working on the thesis. The diploma of correspondence, evening and regular students are equal but students of correspondence education have to devote more time than regular students. The diploma which the students get by five years of regular studies can be got by the students of correspondence

education in six years. At the time of employment, however, the correspondence and evening students get preference because of their better practical skills and work experience.

The students of correspondence education in USSR get extension library facilities. Any student can draw books from any library which is near to his place. In case some book is not locally available with the library and some student is in need of it then that is arranged from the central library and supplied to the student.

7.8 Vocational Secondary Schools :

The second most important adult education programme in schools is managed through Vocational Secondary Schools. These schools turn out technically educated, skilled workers for all branches of industry and agriculture. With today's accelerating technological progress and overall mechanisation of labour, increasing importance is attached to training in the operating of the most sophisticated machines and equipment.

In 1971, 1.7 million young skilled workers graduated from vocational schools. About 19 million people acquired new professions or improved their skills as a result of individual, team or short-term training at the enterprises, institutions or collective farms where they work. The total number of persons who completed their training at vocational schools for the period 1965-70 exceeded seven million, for the 1971-75 period the estimate is nine million. Instruction is given in 1,100 major specialities. An important task of the system of vocational training in the current five-year plan period is to increase the number of vocational schools that provide a trade training as well as a complete secondary education.

Vocational schools admit boys and girls who have successfully completed less than eight years' general education. All graduates are given jobs in their specialities.

The urban vocational schools train workers within 1-3 years for the machine-building, mining, metallurgical and chemical industries, as well as for construction, retail establishments and the municipal services. The rural vocational schools give one and two year courses and train their students to be mechanics to work with agricultural machinery and power installation, fled-crop growers, livestock farmers etc.

The schools provide instruction in theory and on-the-job training with the latter taking up 60-70 percent of the study time.

The theoretical instruction comprises courses in general technology (electrical engineering, radio engineer, mechanics, draughtsmanship etc.) and in general education subject (history, literature, social sciences, mathematics, physics, chemistry etc.).

The students first practise their trades in instructional workshops, and those to be employed in agriculture - at training farms. They finish their practical training right in the workshops of enterprises, and in the fields or livestock departments of collective or state farms. They themselves build models of machines and construct visual aids, technical devices for programmed instruction, etc. In many vocational schools there are primary organisations of the All Union Society of Inventors and Rationalizers. The young rationalizers are the authors of nearly 10,000 technical innovations and improvements that have been introduced in industry.

7.9 Specialized Secondary Education or Vocational Technical School or Tekhnikume :

The third type of adult education is managed through tekhnikumes. Specialized secondary education is accessible to anyone who has received an eight-year or ten-year education at a general education school. Training is

conducted in more than 450 different specialities and it is planned so as to meet the demand for specialists in every republic or economic region of the country. Every student completing his training is provided with a job that suits his qualification.

The specialized secondary educational establishments include industrial constructional, transport and communications, agricultural, economic, co-operative, teaching, medical, musical, art, theatrical, naval and other schools.

The specialized secondary schools train technical personnel in various specialities; mechanics, technologists, metallurgists, electricians, radio mechanics, mining technicians, livestock experts, agronomists, building technicians, assembly workers, planners, goodsists; good managers book-keepers, etc.

The teacher-training, musical and art schools, train teachers for the primary forms; teachers in music and singing, art and draughtsmanship for general education schools; and teachers for kindergartens. The medical schools trains doctor's assistants, pharmacutists, dental mechanics and nurses.

The specialized secondary establishments provide their pupils with a general education at the level of the secondary school as well as with the necessary theoretical practical training in their line. The senior courses provide for extended practical work. The courses end with the presentation by the student of a project or with the passing of the state final examinations. The period of full-time instruction for those who have completed the eight-year school ranges from 3 to 4 years, for those who have finished the ten-year school—2 to 3 years (2.5 years in most cases); for the evening and correspondence systems of instruction the periods of study are usually one year longer. Students who have completed specialized secondary

schools are eligible for admission to institutions of higher learning.

During the years of Soviet rule specialized secondary establishments have trained nearly 12 million specialists. About nine million people with a specialized secondary education are now employed in the various branches of the national economy.

At present, the Soviet Union has over 4,200 specialized secondary schools with 4.4 million students. Every year more than a million students complete the courses at these schools.

Pre-revolutionary Russia had only 450 specialized secondary establishments. On the vast territory of Siberia there was only one specialized secondary school situated in the town of Irkutsk. Today such schools are found in almost all towns of the Soviet Union, even in small ones. Specialized secondary education has become particularly wide-spread in the national republics.

In 1914, Russia trained her specialists for industry, construction, transport and communications at 50 specialized secondary schools. Specialists for agriculture were trained at 24 educational establishments. In 1974, there were 1,500 specialised for industry, construction, transport and communications with an enrolment of two millions. Specialists for agriculture are trained at more than 700 specialized secondary schools.

Evening Secondary School and Corresponding Courses : There are evening classes and correspondence courses, which are highly popular in the Soviet Union. The country has 300 independent evening specialized secondary schools and more than 60 schools where students study through correspondence. Besides there are 1,200 evening and 2,000 correspondence departments of other specialized secondary schools. The total number

of students attending evening schools or studying by correspondence is 1,824000.

Those students who show good progress in their spare time studies are released from their jobs for one day in a week on half-pay. This is done at the expenses in order to provide incentives and opportunities both in the interest of the technical and economic development of the country and for the sake of raising the general cultural standards. Young workers also keen to take advantage of spare time studies due to the nature of special life and wide spread introduction of complicated modern technology in industry and agriculture and development of automation, use of computers and application of electronics.

7.10 Other Arrangements

Better facilities for adult education are available in urban areas as compared to rural areas. Almost all institutes of higher learning provide educational facilities to adults in the evening programmes cover the same courses in longer duration. Industrial undertaking provide time and other facilities to their workers for educating their workers. Almost all the universities arrange programmes for adults. Universities arrange sunday programmes for the adults.

Cultural organisations also make substantial contribution in the spheres of education by organising theatre shows, dances, dramas, exhibitions, museums. In addition these organisations arrange programmes for adults public libraries, moving libraries and reading rooms are established throughout the country. Theatres, cinemas, radio and T.V. play their role in the process of both formal, non-formal and informal education. Some agricultural and industrial museums have been established. Guidance facilities have been provided in museums.

7.11 Main Directions of Adult Education Research in the Soviet Union :

In the early 1980 research into adult education concentrates on historical, sociological didactic economic and organizational methodological questions. It is largely undertaken in specialized research organization. Theoretical and methodological problems of adult pedagogy—for example are studied at the departments of Pedagogy and Psychology of the institute of culture in Moscow and Leningard at the V.I. Lemn Pedagogical Institute in Moscow, the scientific Methodological Council of University Pedagogy of the Ministry of Universities and at the Research Institute of General Adult education Leningard.

The study of the sociology of adult education in undertaken at the universities of Moscow and Leningard as well as in specialized centres. Research into sociology is often linked to psychologically oriented studies. It has mainly concentrated on preferences sentiments and educational interests of various groups of the population for example workers, farmers, young people men and women, questions of public opinion and scale of values in relation to education, and cultural customs and habits.

Research into the education of managerial cadres is conducted in institutes whose aim is to raise the qualifications of managerial workers in various republics of the Soviet Union and by the All-Union scientific Methodological Centres for the organization of Labour and Production Management of the Council of Ministers of the Soviet Union.

Scope of Adult Education Research : There have been different classification of the subjects which should be the concern of Adult Education research in the Soviet Union. The most authoritative is that drawn up by Professor A.O. Pint, Head of the Department of Pedagogy

and Psychology of the Institute of Culture in Moscow (1980).

(a) General problems of adult pedagogy, the content specificity and system of adult pedagogy, the methodology and methods of adult pedagogy as a science the relation of adult pedagogy to other sciences pedagogical problems of all round and harmonious development of the adult personality; the leader of an Adult, collective as a pedagogue educator the stages of adult psychological development and individual psychological characteristics pedagogical foundation of socio-cultural work. Pedagogical problems in party work Pedagogical foundation for improving the forms and methods of party, trade union and Komsomol work with people : problems of vocational pedagogy; and problems of social pedagogy of adults.

(b) Principal stages in the history of adult pedagogy.

(c) Theoretical problems of raising the cultural and educational standards of adults and pedagogical control of their self-education.

(d) **Pedagogical problems of leisure** : Pedagogical conditions and prerequisites for effective use of leisure time as a factor of all round development of the personality; unity and interconnection between work and rest in all round development of the personality; the place of social organizations in the rational use of leisure; pedagogical prerequisites for effective work by socio-cultural establishments in the rational use of leisure by different groups of the populational influence by film, radio, television, and the press, the culture of recreation, the promotion and educational importance of tourism, physical culture as a factor and means of all round development of the adults personality.

(e) **Problems of applied adult pedagogy** : Pedagogical prerequisites for effective verbal propaganda.

objective propaganda and its pedagogical requirements; pedagogical funds of comprehensive forms of work with adults; specificity and content of educational work with adults in clubs, libraries and museums; methods of teaching various kinds of arts, technical creativity and so on.

Professor 'Pint' at the same time stresses that adult pedagogy has its own specific methods of research. The traditional methods of pedagogy—such as observation and pedagogical experiments have a place in adult pedagogy too but only on conditions that they are subjected to specific concrete interpretation,

Adult Education in Denmark

8.1 The Danish Folk High School

Every year at the end of January the information office of the Danish Folk High Schools, Hojskolernes Sekretariat (Folk High School Secretariat), in Copenhagen, puts out a big catalogue which lists all the courses offering for the coming year. Denmark folkehojskoler 1984 (Denmark's Folk High Schools, 1984) is a book of over 100 pages, issued in a first printing of 165,000 copies. The oldest folk high school in the catalogue is from 1844, making it not only Denmark's but the world's oldest folk

high school. The idea of this type of school is probably Denmark's most original contribution to the history of education.

On the other hand, the youngest folk high school contained in the catalogue is barely one year old, the idea of these folk high schools being today as alive as ever. Schemes for a whole series of new school projects have been submitted to the Ministry of Education for approval, which means that the catalogue listing all folk high school activities is likely to become even more voluminous in the coming years

By 1984 Denmark, for the first time in history, had over 100 approved folk high schools and during the same year these schools welcomed nearly 50,000 students. Many will stay only for one or two weeks but there are also many who prefer a longer stay of four or six months. The longest courses lasts ten months.

The short courses, which an increasing number of Danes made an integral part of their summer rhythm during the 1970s, may include special subjects or more general subjects. They may be aimed at the whole family or especially at pensioners. At all events, these courses are intended to offer spiritual enrichment to the participants and to renew their perspective on the daily life to which they return. The longer courses present an opportunity for a more intensive study of a subject. This is true, especially at those folk high schools that have started separate programmes, for instance in athletics, drama or music. Other folk high schools have chosen to deepen the students' self-understanding through a wider variety of subjects.

What characterises the folk high schools is precisely that their vibrant work a day world is marked by such great variety within a common framework—a framework determined by the relationshi^o between the folk high schools

and the state as represented by the Ministry of Education. Since 1951 the folk high schools have received grants-in-aid from the state. Through the years these grants have grown significantly. Still, the school's fundamental freedom of action has in no way been affected. The most important change in the relationship between the folk high schools and the state occurred in 1941 when it was decided that the schools, hitherto the headmaster's personal property, were to become the independent institutions that all folk high schools are today.

One of the most distinctive features of the schools is that they are boarding-schools i.e. where the pupils not only receive instruction but live and eat together. This fact influences the life-style of the entire school while putting the students' settled convictions to the test. In a folk high school, it is often difficult to tell where work ends and spare time begins. The traditional roles of teacher and student are abolished and frequently the dividing line between theory and practice is either shifted or altogether erased. Perhaps the phrase that the folk high school is 'a way of life' best describes what a high school experience is like. For the folk high school only becomes a living reality when the buildings are filled with students, teachers and technical personnel. The folk high school begins to function only when the parties involved join together and become co-workers in the true sense of the word.

8.2 The historical line

Originally the folk high schools were not viewed as a number of distinctly different schools within a common framework. In the past, reference was made to the folk high school movement—preceded by the definite article—because the schools, though placed in different locations, all had similar goals. The term was used as late as the 1930s but, the unity was already shattered in 1887 when the Home Mission established its first high school. More

schools soon followed, all of them with a pietistic Christian message that contrasted with the original Grundtvigian folk high schools. The opening of the first workers' folk high school in 1910 led to even greater diversity. More schools of this type have since been added and the original social democratic workers' folk high schools have more recently been overtaken on the left by new socialist schools.

The reason why the high schools which formulated the original historical line called and still call themselves Grundtvigian is that the basic idea of the folk high school was conceived by Nikolaj Frederik Severin Grundtvig (1783-1872), theologian, poet, educator and historian. In series of publications issued between 1836 and 1847 Grundtvig ceaselessly championed a new type of school which he said had become necessary in view of the historical situation in which the nation found itself. Prompted by the bourgeois revolutions elsewhere in Europe the absolute monarch Frederik VI in 1831 decided to set up an Advisory Assembly of the Estates of the realm, clergy, bourgeoisie and peasants, were to meet biennially at four different places in order to advise the king on important matters. Grundtvig felt that if this experiment was to succeed, especially for those with the poorest education, i.e. the peasants, new kind of folk high school would be necessary.

Three study tours of England undertaken by Grundtvig in 1829, 1830 and 1831 became his principle source of inspiration for shaping the folk high school. He was especially enthusiastic about the social life of the English universities which made possible a degree of intimacy between students and professors that he had never known in Copenhagen. At Cambridge the teachers obviously regarded the students as independent human beings with whom they would actually enjoy talking. Grundtvig was

convinced of the enormous importance of dialogue and one of the crucial principles underlying his folk high school concept was bound up with the dialogue form, namely that of a living exchange. Today, one would probably say that Grundtvig considered it of vital importance to avoid one-way communication. However, he would not have accepted the idea of a two-way communication instead. For he imagined an exchange in the school setting on all sorts of levels—between teachers and students themselves and among the teachers themselves.

Grundtvig held that the introduction of a liberal Constitution in 1849 made the need for a folk high school doubly urgent. Now that a paternalistic king was no longer there to solve the problems, ways that served society best, it was vitally important that every Dane should know the meaning of the fellowship of the Danish people, i.e. the values uniting all Danes in some fundamental way behind class differences and special interests. The task of the Grundtvigian folk high school was and still is to offer people an education for life on their fellowship as Danes. Therefore, it is hardly surprising that in Danish folk high schools great emphasis has always been placed on such subjects as literature and history. Grundtvig claims that in poetry we see the people's dreams most strongly reflected and in history we see how the people realise those dreams.

According to Grundtvig the Danes' fellowship was like a special tradition made-up of this historical-poetic inheritance—which embraced the very element of nationality, i.e. our Danishness—but containing also a unique social consciousness and a universal goal. With regard to the social consciousness, as early as 1820 Grundtvig hammered out some lines that have since become a Danish proverb: "Og da har i rigdom vi drevet det vidt, nar fa har for meget og foerre for lidt" (Then we have progress for in wealth/when

few have too much and fewer too little). With regard to the universal goal, Grundtvig was so deeply rooted in the Christian view of man that the profound love he felt for Denmark and the Danes could not become a goal in itself, i.e. chauvinistic but must open-up to the outside with whom Grundtvig thought that Danes shared a fundamental sense of community, but then also further afield. While Grundtvig never wrote a history of Denmark he did write a three volume history of the world.

8.3 From unity of variety

The Grundtvigian folk high schools grew out of a national whose population lived mostly in the rural areas. The folk high school became an important vehicle for the peasants' struggle for equality with the other classes, a struggle fought and won during the 19th century. Later the folk high school was to play a role in the workers' fight for increased respect and self respect even though the folk high school never became nearly as important for the workers as it had been for the peasants.

With the gradual transformation of Denmark into a nation, whose population lives mostly in urban areas and where only 7.8% is directly engaged in agriculture, the folk high schools as never before. The increasing number of students represents a very broad spectrum of the population. However, corresponding to this, the picture of the folk high school has become more hazy but at the same time more richly faceted. Whereas, in the 1950s the Grundtvigian high schools still composed the great middle group surrounded by, on the one hand, a few mission folk high schools, and, on the other, a few socialist ones. Besides, some specialist folk high schools developed to instructing coaches in amateur athletics or giving preparatory courses for nurses' training the picture is a very different one 30 years later.

In the first place, there are many more schools. In the early 1950s there were 58 folk high schools. Today there are over 100. And the great increase has occurred within the last ten years or so. In the second place, the increase has ended all talk of a folk high school movement as such. If anything, there are several discernable movements within the folk high school setting, with the Grundtvigian schools as the most numerous, followed by about a dozen schools whose educational aim, despite their individual differences, is socialist. Moreover, this multitude of new schools is to a significant degree, helping to turn the high schools into workshops for the shaping of a future, which the Danes—quite like all other Western people—feel unsure about.

This uncertainty has stimulated a veritable Grundtvigian renaissance. Thus new schools have opened that strongly emphasise the Grundtvigian element. But the spiritual quest of our times is also seen in the new Christian folk high schools, for instance those started by the charismatic movement. Transcendental Meditation has opened folk high schools as has the anthroposophic movement. As a logical follow-up to the social debate of the last decades, Denmark now has a women' folk high school and a special European Folk High School. Perhaps that questing and searching spirit is manifested most clearly through the establishment also of a folk high school for research.

8.4 The unity behind the variety

The question might well be raised whether today the chief unifying element of the folk high schools consists of, and is determined by, their common relationship with the state, i.e. the Ministry of Education. The folk high school and the state. However, on closer inspection it will be seen that in the spite of everything the folk high

schools have more in common than the mere fact that they are covered by Act No. 259 of 4 June 1970 with supplementary circulars and instructions. Thus it is high significant that the common starting-point for all folk high schools is that the students' attendance is strictly voluntary. And they do not come in order to pass examinations since that is not part of their curriculum. But they come because they have certain expectations—because they are curious in some area or other. In that sense all folk high schools subscribe to the old Grundtvigian dictum that willing hands make light work. Human beings will only learn something and will only become wiser, if they are so inclined.

A further unifying element is the fact that behind all ideological and confessional differences the folk high schools are preoccupied with the mystery of life—as the old folk high school people would have expressed it. They are preoccupied with exploring the meaning of this impenetrable but fascinating life which we human beings lead together with and against each other. It was just this curiosity and this respect for the value of human life respect for the value of human life regardless on an individual's social position or income that Grundtvig considered a prerequisite for any one wanting to study at a folk high school. He strongly emphasised that the folk high schools were not restricted to Christians. He looked with favour upon the inclusion of atheists—or materialists as he called them—so long as they were not totally materialistic in their views or lacked the above mentioned respect for the greatness of human life. They should have a spiritual sense as Grundtvig would put it.

A further characteristic of the folk high schools is their engagement in the experiment called the history of Denmark. In all of Danish society interest in history has risen sharply during the 1980s—an interest which has also

had a strong impact on the folk high schools. In many schools, however that interest also means finding out what history can tell us about the direction we ought to take in the future if we are to remain faithful to our historical heritage. As previously mentioned, the folk high schools are also a kind of workshop where speculation takes place about the future.

Finally, it is important that folk high school students are drawn from such a wide segment of the Danish population that, now as before, the folk high schools can offer their students an enlarged view of Danish society. That view is not necessarily more beautiful but it will accord better with the facts. The pupils will discover that Denmark is a much more varied enterprise than most of them realised when they left home. And the folk high schools are also agreed that only when the pupils are back home again can it be seen whether their folk high school experience was successful in the sense that they acquired new knowledge and a new resolve for the days ahead, i.e. new courage for a close encounter with their own existence. If the high school experience has been only a more or less exciting holiday away from everyday routine, then it hasn't been good enough.

3.5 The folk high school outside Denmark

It is hardly surprising that Grundtvig's idea for a folk high school has also spread to other parts of the world. This type of independent schooling aimed at an understanding of one's own uniqueness as a people is not something Danes ought to keep for themselves. At the same time, it is equally obvious that the folk high school idea cannot simply be taken over from Denmark without local adaptations in design. Today Norway, Sweden and Finland possess numerous high schools like those in Denmark. The catalogue on Folkehøgskolen i Norge 1984

(The folk high schools of Norway 1984) lists no less than 90 schools.

However, folk high school experiments have also been instituted outside the Nordic countries. In 19th century America, Danish immigrants founded a handful of folk high schools. They have since been closed down but a number of educational experiments in America are still keeping the folk high school idea alive. Britain possesses a number of residential colleges, the oldest being Fircroft College, which was established in 1909, the year after its founder, Tom Bryan, had made a study tour of Danish folk high schools, which he remained in touch with afterwards.

In Germany and Switzerland the folk high school inspiration has produced only schools offering courses of short duration. This, however, has not prevented Fritz Wartenweiler from spending a long and industrious life promoting the folk high school idea in Switzerland. Similarly, Erica Simon has laboured for the spread of the folk high school in France partly through her work as a professor and partly through the educational centre which she founded at Vanosc. The folk high school movement which has existed for many years in Poland still shows vitality—and it is worth mentioning that also the new nations of Africa have considered the folk high school concept a possible vehicle for popular self-understanding. With this end in mind, Tanzania has led the way in exploring the university of Grundtvig's ideas in a manner which the old sage could hardly have imagined in his boldest dreams but doubtless would have been happy to offer his sincere encouragement.

Bishop Grundtvig : The high tide of the movement for Folk Education came with Nicolaj Frederic Severin Grundtvig (1783-1872), an illustrious and outstanding figure in Danish history, a scholar, poet, philosopher and

theologian. Early in life and as an indigent scholar Grundtvig had been to England with a Government scholarship to make research in Anglo-Saxon studies at the British Museum. He also studied at Cambridge. With a sensitive and receptive mind, he was deeply impressed by the British habit of looking upon actual life as the final test of any theory, and felt that it would be more valuable to do something toward the moral and cultural elevation of the people of his own country than translate old Anglo-Saxon manuscripts into Danish. He was also imbued with the spirit of the 19th century German Romanticism. He ardently believed that "an eager heart and a desire for wisdom are the greater things in the world"; he really believed that "though these things might be hidden from the learned and the prudent they might be revealed to the simple. Grundtvig wanted to arouse intellectual curiosity rather than impart information. His conception of folk education was that it should appeal to the whole nation, both the peasants and the cultivated classes. History was to be presented as an education of human life, and poetry as a vitaliser of spiritual life. The school he conceived was to be attended by men and women, who had completed their school education, and have had some practical experience of the world. He perceived that between the ages of 18 and 20 there comes a great mental awakening. The mind becomes more alert and curious, full of the desire to discover and grasp the meaning of life. It was at this precise period that adolescents should be brought into intimate contact with the leaders, to live with them, to talk to them and discuss with them their problems and perplexities of life. The pupils should not be too numerous and teachers too few to hinder intimate personal contact. The teachers should be men or women of inspiring personality. Grundtvig laid emphasis on the importance and vitality of the 'spoken word' or the 'living word' by which he meant transmission of personality

through speech. Community singing and physical exercise, talks on history, poetry and religion are all intended to conduce to the spiritual enrichment of everyday life. There should be no examination and diploma nor any technical subjects. The object was to widen the mental horizon and to stimulate aspiration. And above all, it was to strengthen national unity as a means to achieve human unity. The object was to cultivate fellowship in life rather than fellowship of power.

8.6 Folk High School (The F.H.S.)

The Folk Colleges, or Folkehojskolen, as many educationists will be aware, were first established in South Denmark in 1844. Sorenson's F.H.S. in 1848 and Kold's in 1851 provided the first real prototypes. By 1894 Denmark and sixty-five such institutions in existence. The number rose to eighty-three in 1910. Three Folkhogskola had been started in Sweden in 1868, and these had increased to 110 by 1964. Finland took up their first F.H.S. in 1889 and during 1964 were supporting eighty-two such institutions. These Scandinavian Folk Colleges were, in almost all cases, the result of individual and private initiatives and were supported partly or wholly by non-official funds and fees although increasingly grant-aided from government sources as essential parts of educational provision for the community. Each country developed slightly different characteristics in its organization of F.H.S. and adopted officially this pattern of residential institution for local, national reasons which were not identical. All the Folk Colleges were recognizably of the same species and arose from the same inspiration. In twentieth century, authentic versions and even the name of the Folk High School pattern could be found in almost every continent and countries, i.e., Holland, Germany, Poland, Austria and Switzerland, U.K., U.S.A., Canada, India and Ghana.

First Folk School : Denmark got her first Parliament

tary Constitution in 1849. "Absolutism" was abolished and the king became a constitutional monarch. The popular movement that culminated in the triumph of democracy was not, however, a class struggle for the capture of power, but a genuine economic and spiritual movement. Naturally, the Folk-School movement conforming to the Grundtvigian ideals made further headway in the following period. But as Grundtvig was a philosopher, and idealist and visionary, a man of more practical genius was needed to translate his ideas into practice.

Christen Kold (1816-1870), son of a shoe-maker, and sent to school to become a teacher, was the architect and builder of the Danish Folk School in its concrete form. Christen Kold after passing through a difficult spiritual crisis in his own life, and after facing many frustrations, founded the famous Folk School St. Ryslinge in 1850. The ideas of Grundtvig and the efforts of Christen Kold were at first looked down upon as impracticable. But slowly, success came and during the next ten years the movement gathered momentum. Kold himself was no scholar of distinction but man of vivid and inspiring personality. He lived with his pupils, ate with them, and slept with them in the same room. Through his talks which were always based on his personal feelings and experiences he could breathe his own spirit into his listeners. His words produced breathless silence around him.

The nineteenth-century Danish philosopher, poet, politician Grundtvig, universally honoured as the inspirer and the proposer of the Folk High School concept. His ideas at the foundation of a 150-year old 'movement' which has exerted and which continues still to have a profound influence on adult education in Scandinavia. Harris said, "Grundtvig preached the idea of education as being enlightenment ('oplysning') and of being both awakening and creativity, rather than more instruction or knowledge

alone Education, he claimed, should be organic growth from the spiritual potential within, and teaching should be cultivation and inspiration rather than mere transfer of wisdom. This creed was a reaction against the early-nineteenth-century grammar-school learning out of what he termed the 'dead books' of the 'dead' past. In Norway and Denmark the term 'oplysning' has for long now been the main synonym for 'education of the adult.' He also stressed the real importance of education for living rather than merely for employment, the fostering of a national 'folkelig' a common folk cultura shared by all and developed by all."

Historically the rapid spread of the institution in mid-nineteenth-century Denmark followed the 1814 Education Act, the beginning of the town and village evening schools and the fast-developing democratic ideas of the European popular revolutions. The drive for high school for farmers' in a predominantly agricultural and rural country was strengthened in 1864 by Denmark's traumatic defeat by her neighbour Prussia and the loss of territory to Germany. The Danish Folk College had been involved from the beginning in political, although 'non-partisan' issues and had won the right both to freedom of speech and to government financial support.

He abjured examination of any kind, and vocational or professional education. The Folk High Schools were to impart intellectual and emotional education on the basis of practical life-experience. It was not intended that the pupils from the Folk High Schools should go out as trained artisans and workers, but go back to their work with a broader outlook.

The war with Germany in 1864 ended in disaster for Denmark. The northern part of Slevig, a considerable slice off the Jutland Peninsula was lost. The people's moral suffered a severe set-back. It was at this national

crisis that the Folk School Movement once again proved its inner potentiality by strengthening and reviving the national morale.

What Denmark lost outwardly she tried to regain inwardly by setting her house in order. This has been well expressed by a Folk High School leader in the following words. "They endured the baptism of affliction."

During the period from 1864-1870 some 50 F.H.S.s were established and their attendance rose from 500 to 2,000. Although some of these institutions did not carry on for long, there was a tremendous display of energy and enthusiasm and the Folk School idea struck deep roots.

The Folk High School Movement in Denmark has always been closely linked with the rise of the peasantry, the introduction of democratic government and a strong current of national and religious impulses.

In Denmark, the Folk High School had four conditions for government grant such a school must follow a 'traditional' type of high-school folk programme, i.e. boarding residence, at least one five-month course of equivalent, admission of all social classes, and a curriculum stressing cultural and social problems. It is observable that the central association consulting on and expressing Danish F.H.S. co-ordination amongst this individualist group are the Association of Folk High Schools and Agricultural Schools. Immediately after the Second World war there were Danish institutions which described themselves either officially or unofficially as Folk. High Schools but which also specialized in the retraining of unemployed men and women, or in vocational training of gymnastic enthusiasts and teachers, or in preparation of public examinations, or in evening non-residential classes. Some important features of folk school are :

1. The curriculum and programme of activities support

the view that the cultural and social development of the individual is basic to his intellectual and economic growth, and that this is best cultivated within the context of an adult national tradition.

2. The value of learning through living in a simple home-like residential community, with shared activities and labours and with 'living' contact with experienced personalities and other learners.
3. The independence of a learning tradition (from bureaucratic direction or from mere expediency) and the fostering of democratic expression, initiative, and egalitarian opportunity.
4. The Danish F.H.S. tradition has itself passed through many phases and has evolved new practices. These have included, in many cases, slightly more democratic tradition of student responsibility and decision-making, an emphasis on self-study with books (with a very 'catholic' range) in a college library, use of discussion group and seminar techniques, mixing of the sexes in courses, and a far larger proportion of shorter and sometimes semi-vocational courses with participation of older members.

Present Tendency : The tendency during the 19th century, was to found comparatively small local Folk High Schools, whereas the present tendency is to have bigger schools with imposing buildings and amenities to which students from different parts of the country come.

In all, there are now some 50 ordinary Folk High Schools, including one at Roskilde that is predominantly attended by the Danish workers and run by the W.E.A., and one at Krogerup supported by the co-operatives, the Employers' Unions and the Trade Unions. In addition there are some special types of Folk High Schools. There are thirty-two Agricultural Schools (purely technical), five

specially meant for Gymnastics, games, sports and agility : ten exclusively devoted to Domestic Science, Housewifery Nursery Training for girls, one Fisherman's F.H.S., four or five Small-holders' Folk High Schools, one for the study of International Relations, and the International People's College at Elsinore.

The Askov F.H.S. runs a special course for training the F.H.S. teachers. Askov and Hasler are advanced Folk High Schools for most of their students are drawn from those who have already attended another F.H.S. or had some other education after the Elementary course. The course at Askov, which is regarded at the University of Folk High Schools, is a three-year course the students of one winter term coming again for the subsequent terms.

Summer and Winter Sessions : All the Folk High Schools privately-owned are non-profit-making corporations. They are residential institutions, generally having two sessions, the three-months summer session for girls and five-months winter session for men. In between there may be some short special courses in some of the schools. It is only in a few Folk High Schools that the winter courses are attended by both men and women. The average age of the students is about 20 years.

The State makes liberal grants towards the payment of teachers' salaries, buildings and equipment, almost without any conditions. The only condition on which State recognition is accorded is that the instruction imparted should be of a general and non-technical character and that there should be no examination. The Principal is allowed absolute freedom in the matter of selection and appointment of his staff. No propaganda on the basis of Party politics is allowed. The teacher is expected to present the problems in an objective manner. He expresses his own convictions, but through free discussions, the students can express their own conclusions.

The Communist Party of Denmark started a Folk High School in Copenhagen and the Government recognise it. A Folk High School is, of course, subject to inspection by the State Youth Education Adviser, but true to the tradition of freedom of the Schools, the Adviser simply acquaints himself with its work and conditions and seldom interferes with its affairs.

An indigent student may get maintenance allowance from the State which may amount to from 25% to 75% of the total expenses, including expenses on books and pocket money. About 60% of the students receive State-aid.

8.7. Method of Instruction

Instruction in a Folk High School is theoretical, except in Gymnastics, Community singing and Domestic Science. Lectures, group-discussions, study-circles and similar other give-and-take methods are followed. While instruction, according to the subject-bias of a school, centres round that particular subjects, attempts are made to give as much liberal education as possible through studies in Humanities. Great importance is attached to choral singing. Classwork, or any other activity begins with a song and ends with one. Every Dane—a man or a woman, a child or an old person—can and does participate in choral songs. This is a very common feature of the Danish social life.

Distinctive Features : In brief some of the notable characteristics of the Danish Folk High School as distinct from an ordinary Primary or Secondary School are :

- (i) A Folk High School is residential. The teachers and the students live together, trying to develop comradeship and community living.
- (ii) Instruction imparted in a Folk High School is, in the main, non-technical and non-vocational. The main emphasis is on cultural and emotional

education with a view to developing broader and more enlightened outlook on life.

'Humanities' is the core subject.

- (iii) The method of teaching is the 'personal' method through the spoken word by free exchange of views between the teachers and the students. There is no test or examination.
- (iv) Folk High School Education also emphasises the moral and spiritual values of life.

Looking at things critically it will not be far from correct to say that the Folk High Schools of today differ in some fundamentals from those visualised by Grundtvig and established by his followers about a century ago.

8.8 The Folk High School and the State

The state requires : That the school buildings shall be approved for folk high school use by the Ministry of Education and other public authorities; use by the Ministry of Education and other public authorities.

That the schools shall be boarding-schools.

That the schools shall offer at least 32 weeks of improved courses annually and that the longer courses shall include at least one courses of 20 weeks' duration or two courses of at least 12 weeks' duration each;

That school regulation, object clauses and curriculs shall be approved by the Ministry of Education;

That the school's headmaster shall be approved by the Ministry of Education;

That the students shall be approved by the Ministry of Education;

That the students shall be at least 17½ years old at the time of admission;

That the schools, during the three fiscal years preceding, shall have received an average number of at least 18 one-year students (1- one year student equals 1 student for 40 weeks);

That the education shall not be so specialised in one particular direction that it cannot fairly be termed generally broadening;

That no examination shall be held.

The state provides : Grants-in-aid for teacher salaries—building maintenance—heating expenses—taxes, excises and audits—secretaries' and caretakers' wages—educational materials within closely defined limits and partly in accordance with the number of one-year students attending the school. Grants-in-aid may also be made for non-recurrent building maintenance according to closely defined rules.

In fiscal 1980 Danish folk high schools turned over 328.2 million kroner, of which 47.1% came from state grants. The schools' deficit totalled 1 million kroner. In fiscal 1982 the turnover of the folk high schools totalled 454.7 million kroner, of which 46.7% was from state grants. The schools now had a surplus.

It must be taken into account that the schools' own income—in the above mentioned to fiscal years amount to 52.9% and 53.3% of the turnover respectively—is to a very large extent derived from the fees paid by the students themselves. In addition the state makes a grant within economic framework which is fixed annually. Whether or not a student will receive a state grant towards his folk high school education depends on his personal income. The maximum state grant allowed students with minimum incomes covers 45-50% of the total cost of attending school. The students may apply for an additional grant from their home country.

8.9 A History of the Folk High Schools

1836 : N.F.S. Grundtvig issues the first of a series of publications in which he advocates the necessity of establishing a Danish folk high school.

1844 : Rodding Folk High School in South Jutland is inaugurated as the first folk high school on 7 November.

1849 : Uldum Folk High School in East Jutland is established. The school has been operating till this day.

1851 : Christen Kold starts a folk high school at Ryslinge on Funen. The Danish state makes its first grant to the folk high schools.

1856 : On 3 November Grundtvig dedicates Marieiyst Folk High School north of Copenhagen, built with the money he received on his 70th anniversary three years before.

1864 : Herman Anker and olaus Arvesen open the Norwegian folk high school, Sagatun at Hamar.

1865 : The folk high school movement gains momentum. Ludvig Schroder founds a folk high school at Askov in South Jutland while Ernst Trier opens Vallekilde Folk High School in North-West Zealand.

1866 : Testrup Folk High School southwest of Arnus is founded by Jens Norregaard.

1868 : The first three Swedish folk high schools are established, Herrested in Oster Gotland, Onnestad in Kristiansstad country, and Hvilan in Scania.

1876 : On 7 April the first number of Hojskolebladet (The Folk High School Review) carrying the subtitle Tidende for folkelig Oplysning (Journal of Popular Education) is issued. Has appeared on a weekly basis ever since.

1878 : Askov Folk High School in South Jutland

launches extended teaching programme, meaning chiefly that the natural sciences are now also included in the curriculum. The first Danish folk high school in America is founded at Elk Horn, Iowa.

1883 : The first big Nordic folk high school conference takes place at Testrup Folk High School southwest of Aarhus. These Nordic conferences are still being held at four-year intervals, alternating between Denmark, Sweden Norway and Finland.

1887 : The Home Mission opens its first high school at Norre Nissum in West Jutland.

1889 : The first two folk high Schools in Finland are established, one for Finnish-speaking at Kangasala, and one for Swedish-speaking at Borga.

1891 : On 2 September Foreningen of Folkehojskoler og Landbrugsskoler (Association of Folk High Schools and Agricultural Schools) is founded. Johan Borup establishes a folk high school in Copenhegen and for many years Borup's Folk High School has been the only Danish folk high school without boarders.

1894 : Appearance of the first edition of Sangbog for den danske folkehojskole (Song book for the Danish folk high school). Since then 15 editions have been published under the title of Hojskolesangbogen (The folk high school song book). The book has become Denmark's most widely used of its kind.

1900 : The Faroese Folk High School is established at Torshavn.

1905 : Kobmandshvile Folk High School, mainly intended for young tradesmen, is started at Horsholm in North Zealand. The school closed down in 1976.

1908 : A fishermen's folk high school opens at Kerteminde on Funen. The school moves to Snoghoj in East Jutland, but has to close down in 1925.

1910 : The first workers' folk high school is established at Esbjerg.

1920 : The first physical education folk high school is founded by Neils Bukh at Ollerup on Funen.

1921 : Peter Manniche starts the International People's College at Elsinore in North Zealand, the only exclusively English-language folk high school in Denmark. The periodical *Dansk Udsyn* (Danish Perspective), edited by teachers from Askov Folk High School, begins publication. The periodical, still published by Askov is issued six times a year.

1946 : Krogerup Folk High School at Humlebaek in North Zealand is founded with Hal-Koch as headmaster. The school grew out of the cooperation across political party lines between a number of youth organisations during and after the Second World War.

1949 : Scandinavian Seminar is established. Since then this organisation has helped students from America to get a folk high school education in the Nordic countries.

1950 : Jaruplund, the Danish folk high school in Schleswig, is dedicated. Landsforeningen of Hojskoleelever (National Association of Folk High School Students) is founded on 12 February. Hojskolernes Sekretariat (Folk High School Secretariat), a joint information office for folk high schools, opens in Copenhagen.

1962 : The first folk high school in Greenland, Knud Rasmussen's Folk High School at Holsteinsborg is established.

1965 : A former continuation school at Vester Vedsted near Ribe in southwest Jutland is approved as the nation's first continuation folk high school for young people aged 17 to 19.

1970 : The Travelling Folk High School is founded.

A few years later its headquarters is moved to Tvind near Ulfborg in West Jutland. Since then the so called Tvind Schools have branched out into several folk high schools and a number of continuation schools.

1971 : The first pensioners' folk high schools are approved at Norre Nissum in West Jutland, at Kolt south-west of Arhus, and at Marielyst on Falster. The long-time association between folk high schools and agricultural schools is ended. The folk high schools join together in Foreningen for Folkehojskoler i Danmark (Association of Folk High Schools in Denmark).

1972 : The Icelandic Folk High School is established at Skalholt.

1977 : The first independent trade union in the folk high school area is founded, Danske Folkehojskoler Laererforening (Association of Danish Folk High School Teachers).

1979 : Foreningen for Folkehojskoler i Danmark (Association of Folk High Schools in Denmark) establishes a permanent secretariat on 3 October.

1983 : Numerous folk high schools observe the bicentennial of N.F.S. Grundtvig's birth. Both that anniversary and the centennial of the first Nordic folk high school conference are celebrated at a Nordic seminar at Testrup Folk High School southwest of Arhus and afterwards at a large conference at Askov Folk High School in South Jutland.

8.10 The Scandinavian Pattern

The deepest impact of the Folk College movement has undoubtedly been within the five Scandinavian countries. There has for many decades been constant co-operation and interchanges between the two or three hundred F.H.S. in these areas. A Scandinavian Folk High School, with

inter-nation staffing and enrolment, was established in Sweden in 1947. The Scandinavian High School Council arranges Summer Meetings (triannually) and publishes a Scandinavian High School Annual. The morning lecture and the morning songs, the elements of history and legend, literature, and social idealism, the physical education, the longer courses, and the simple residential community experience are all within the familiar pattern. Yet the national populations each adopted the pattern under Danish inspiration but for slightly different reasons, and these have contributed to variations of form and emphasis. The F.H.S. had to fight (with ultimate success) the open opposition of their own government country schools. (The Icelanders and Faroes islanders established their F.H.S. in support of their own cultural freedom, against Denmark. Denmark confirmed Icelandic independence in 1944. The Finnish F.H.S. were supporting a largely under-educated peasantry and reacting against Russian culture domination after the original imperial Russian annexation in 1809. It is probable that, as elsewhere in the semi-Arctic north, the residential institution had a particular attraction for a farming society isolated for the long winter months of a bitter Nordic climate. Folk Colleges had a number of features, i.e., a Christian ethical element, the concept of a community home and family, the idea of longer-term residence during the winter months, the relative unimportance of qualifications and of examinations, the dignity of manual toil, and the contribution of every individual to society—locally, nationally and internationally. The stress is invariably more on character and on spirit than on learning, on skills, and on the search for knowledge.

The ideal of the Folk College appealed many educationists in nearby countries outside Scandinavia. However, at many places it did not prove to be economically viable, as residential accommodation was itself expensive. In

Britain, where Grundtvig's imagination was fired, by the example of the very different Oxford University residential college-halls, the F.H.S. in turn inspired the founding of the Fircroft (industrial workers) and Avoncroft (Agricultural workers) College. Neither local governments nor the trade unions, although willing to give some support to the private initiative, were sufficiently enthusiastic to establish a firm basis for truly wide popular participation to develop over the years. These have been a useful English version of residential education for adults, but could never be truly described as Folk Colleges in spite of some F.H.S. features. The travelling Folk High School concept in Canada, a natural import of ideas accompanying the many Scandinavian immigrants to North America, was a week's course in rural homesteads with accommodation provided in local homes. This again, though valuable to Canadian urban participants as introductions to rural surroundings and farming communities, and as an attempt to share cultural and intellectual interests, lacks almost all that might be regarded as basic F.H.S. ingredients.

Critical Review : Grundtvig was very strong in his opinion that a man or woman could benefit by the Folk High School education after he or she had attained a certain age of maturity, say 18, and acquired some practical experience of life. He deliberately left out the age group 14-18. But a very vital and vulnerable age range as this is, it may be asked, particularly in the context of the conditions of the advanced industrialised civilization of today, whether it is advisable to ignore the group altogether or to admit them to the benefits of Folk High School Education of some kind or other.

The almost exclusive emphasis on cultural and intellectual education is yet another point which deserves a critical review. It is a fact that the purely theoretical character of the course does not present sufficient attraction to the present day youths.

The Folk High Schools have greatly helped to develop social life, but large sections of the youth of today and many farmers, as well are more eager to earn money than to save it to attend a Folk High School. The demand for some kind of vocational or technical education is on the increase.

It is much more difficult today than a hundred or even fifty years ago to establish a Folk High School, and to enlist a sufficient number of students. The question of resuscitating the movement in the light of the present as well as the future needs of the community has, therefore, been engaging the attention of the Folk High School leaders of Denmark.

It has already been stated that one of the objects of the Folk High School movement in Denmark was to restore and strengthen the people's moral at a time of national crisis. That it succeeded in a large measure in achieving the objective is evident from what happened after 1864. The Folk High School movement could and did stem the tide of German influence upon Danish culture.

There is also the second concrete instance of how the Folk High Schools, by direct influence, enable the Danish farmer to exploit to their best advantage the situation created by the opening of a foreign market, a result of the repeal of the English Corn Laws of 1846. The reoriented Danish farmer could fully understand the implications of the new developments in World trade consequent upon the growing industrialisation of England, and the gold rush in California and Australia. He took the chance by the forelock and by intensified productive efforts captured the market of Europe.

Yet again, when a slump in the corn market of Europe came about in the 'Seventies of the last century as a result of competition offered by the new corn-growing countries

like U.S.A., Canada, Argentina and Siberia, the enlightened Danish farmer was shrewd enough to change the tactics. He ceased to export corn, as heretofore, and switched on to the production of butter and bacon and poultry products. Denmark now leads in the World market in respect of export of meat and milk products. Denmark monopolises one-third of the World's trade in butter and one-third in bacon, The Danish farmer produces 50% of his agricultural products for home consumption and 50% for export.

Having no mines, minerals, water-power or other sinews of industry, Denmark has to depend entirely upon import of raw materials from abroad for the development of her industries. Even most of Denmark's electricity comes from the big Hydraulic Plants of Sweden and Norway. In the circumstances competition with the progressive industrial countries is out of the question. Denmark makes good this leeway notwithstanding by producing agricultural and dairy products of a higher quality. The Danish soil is not naturally of very high quality. It is by mechanisation of agriculture and intensive scientific fertilisation that the land is made to yield the maximum to hold its own in World competition. The Danish farmer going to the Folk High Schools learns to his profit the latest methods of agriculture and care of livestock. He knows how to increase the fat content of milk and also how to fatten his pigs and poultry. The young women attending these institutions learn the art of house-keeping and in later life turn out to be efficient housewives and farmers assistants at home and on the farm.

Cooperation : In addition to agriculture and dairy, there is the third vital factor in Danish national economy, namely, its co-operation. There are Cooperative Dairies, Cooperative Bacon factories, Cooperatives and many other similar organisations. By and large these co-operative undertakings bestow upon the farmers and other primary

produces the benefit of an assured market and thus saves them from the trouble of having to market own commodities. The Danish farmer knows his own business. The liberal education he receives at the Folk High School enables him to take intelligent interest in matters vitally concerning him and his community.

The Folk High Schools devoted to Dynamastics and music provide the country with trained Youth Leaders. Specialised courses in physical training are imparted. Singing is an essential item in the programme of a Folk High School. The class begins with a song and ends with one. Almost every Dane can sing or at least participate in a chorus. Social contact with any Danish farmer, worker or artisan will reveal his polished manners, his refined taste, his sense of humour and, above all, an affable and cultured personality. It redounds to the credit of the Folk High School movement that national culture and refinement, instead of remaining confined to the 'ivory tower' of aristocracy, has really percolated down to the level of common man in Denmark.

Denmark's transition from feudalism to constitutional democracy was not brought about by any violent revolution or bitter class struggle. It was more or less a peaceful and progressive movement that emancipated the Danish peasantry not only from economic and political serfdom but also from the bondage of ignorance. The Folk High School movement played a remarkable part in making the peasants politically and socially conscious. From 1860 onwards the leaders of the Folk High Schools took a significant part in the political struggle. Quite a large number of the Folk High School pupils are members of Parliament and of the Local bodies. Party politics is scrupulously eschewed, but the Folk School curriculum gives political education on objective lines.

About a third of the rural youth of Denmark has

attended courses at the Folk High Schools and the Agricultural Schools during the past thirty years.

8.10 Effects of Industrialisation

It may perhaps be concluded from what has been stated above that in their Folk High Schools the Danish people have really discovered a solution for some of their social and economic problems. It is true that the Folk High Schools have played a historic role in the development of Denmark into a free, democratic and prosperous country. But it will be too absurd to make such extravagant claims. At the turn of the century and in the context of changed circumstances the Folk Schools, too, have undergone changes in outlook popularity and public utility. The Folk High Schools today are not the same as they were originally conceived. To make an overall view of things, the effects of industrialism are as much evident in Denmark as in any other country. The tempo of migration from the rural districts to the urban centres continues unabated. Introduction of mechanisation in agriculture and allied trades reduces the necessity for manpower, and drives men and women townwards in search of jobs. The lure of the city life has an irresistible appeal. And although the difference in the condition of life in a city and in a modernised Danish village, having the amenities of good roads, quick transport, electricity, social and civic services is much narrower than the correspondence difference in India or any non-industrialised country. The fact remains that Copenhagen alone stands out as an inflated overgrowth, having more than one quarter of the country's whole population.

It is irrefutable that the townward drift is increasing. The Folk Schools have not been able to thwart the forces of an industrialised urban civilization nor check the migration of the villagers to the town to such a degree as is

often assumed in certain quarters. Nor do they exercise same influence on the minds of the students as formerly.

It has been complained, and not without grounds, that of late there has been a noticeable decline in the popularity of the Folk High Schools. The Grundtvigian theory of the efficacy of a liberal and cultural education is being regarded as less and less valuable than some practical technical training ensuring immediate economic gain.

8.11 Relevance of Scandinavian Folk High Schools for Developing Countries

Since many formal education systems in both developing and developed countries tend to focus in advancing skills which improve people's chances to leave rural areas, there is a particular need for rural education concentrating primarily on skills in order to help rural men and women improve conditions at the village level to which they return. The unique experiences gathered by the Nordic Folk High School in this respect, together with the experience of adult education centres in Ghana, Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania and India, and Farm Training Institutes in Zambia, led to a workshop on the possible use of the Nordic Folk High School idea in the Developing Countries sponsored by the Nordic Development Agencies in Holte, Denmark in 1980.

Here are some of the ideas developed at the week-long meeting :

Characteristics of Nordic Folk High Schools that have been found to be relevant to developing countries or give promise of benefiting developing countries include :

Four to nine months course as well as a shorter courses given in residence.

Study circles, discussions, lectures, private study, excursions as part of the learning process (study circles in

liberal, leisure education are organized by voluntary associations or local communities and cover the vast majority of participants. Total participation in adult education is well above 20% of the adult population).

The Grundtvigian assumption that youth and adulthood, not childhood, are the proper times for education.

The "living word" (of the native tongue) as opposed, to book language is the best vehicle of education (Grundtvig).

Instruction includes story telling, reading, writing and arithmetic singing, gymnastics and lectures.

Students live in, like the members of a single, large family, and great importance is attached to the constant discussions that take place involving both teachers and students.

Most of the students come from rural communities and return there after concluding their studies.

The state finances practically all the activities of Folk High School without noticeably interfering with their teaching.

All Folk High Schools to a greater or lesser extent keep their distance from the rest of the education system and have historically regarded themselves as an alternative to that system.

Common activities especially conducive to socialization between students and teachers are organized.

Students are informed about living conditions both objectively and on the basis of a set of convictions.

Specialized needs are catered to; special emphasis is placed on sports and athletics, some times on music, art and drama, still other times on problems of working life or special international topics.

Folk High Schools are free to provide instruction which

is organized on lines determined by themselves and which does not confer formal qualifications.

Most students taking long-term Folk High School courses are between the ages of 18 and 40 (although there is no maximum age limit. Average age of those taking shorter courses (1-3 weeks) is higher.

In terms of formal qualifications Folk High School students are treated at par with students holding elementary or upper secondary school learning certificates. This enables students to gain admission to higher studies without any concomitant restrictions on Folk High School activities.

Yearly about 25,000 adults in the Nordic countries go to Folk High Schools, i.e., 1-2% of total population.

Folk High Schools have capacity for experimentation springing out of their independence and commitment to democracy.

Their collective life style confronts present day social problems and political conflicts.

Courses often consist of projects e.g., ecology conditions of a 6 jord area, surveying the listening and viewing habits in the reception region of Radio Denmark, collecting folk songs and folk tales from a region, listing all cultural activities of a region.

The teacher is an animator, a resource as well as a tutor and instructor.

The Folk High School uses "indirect methods." Its aim is to strengthen self-confidence and a feeling of identity in the individual. Through this process the individual should become better fit to master her or his changing life, i.e., to improve the individual's options for personal choice.

Learning is fused with practice, e.g., physics and chemistry are related to farming problems, geometry to land surveying etc.

Nordic Folk High Schools influenced the establishment of 12 Folk High Schools in India, especially one near Mysore whose purpose is to adapt to a developing society, build up personality, improve vocational skills, and study rural problems.

They influenced the establishment of an Adult Education University in Ghana.

They affected the development of similar institutions in Tanzania and Zambia as well as India and Ghana whose goals are to increase self-confidence, learn/understand personal identity and roots, create a feeling of fellowship among people based on their culture, change undesirable attitudes, e.g., attitudes toward the rural environment, indigenous folklore, culture and morality, and create awareness, develop personality, prepare for work in a developing society and promote national consciousness and national identity.

Interaction began some years ago. After a visit in 1971 to Sweden a delegation from Tanzania strongly recommended that some Adult Education Institutions in Tanzania be created along the lines of Swedish Folk High Schools. Beginning in 1975, several were established.

Continuing education and farmer training centres in Zambia were also influenced by the Folk High School concept.

Perhaps the most important general facet of the Folk High School reality for developing countries is its capacity for experimentation, springing out of its independence and its commitment to democracy. The Folk High School movement began in a period of crisis and change, national period and poverty. It was part of a popular revival which

changed reality, not unlike the euphoria of the newly liberated developing countries. In 1986 there are also many new activities and group formations to be found in the Nordic societies—environmental activists, anti-nuclear groups, women liberationists. Students encounter a collective life style in folk study and work, between working hours and leisure, between theory and practice. In practical gardening they experience ecological knowlegde, in getting together with the local people they learn songs and dances from times past, through visits with local old age pensioners they receive living testimonies of a history which they otherwise would never meet.

This merging of the practical and the theoretical, the folklore learning, etc. speaks to societies emerging from colonialism and primitive existence to a more sophisticated, pre-industrial/industrial society. It is true that the Folk High Schools of the Nordic countries as seen from India or Africa, might look at first like a luxury designed for meaningful leisure activities. The conditions, however, are different for Folk High Schools as instruments of change.

The difference is constituted by two centuries of industrial development. Communication is now global and the gap in quality of life conditions between the different parts is enormous. This North-South historical challenge must be met by large groups of ordinary citizens and, in one underdeveloped corner of the world, Sandinavia more than a century ago, it was successfully faced in humble learning places for ordinary people, called Folk High Schools. The Nordic people are proud of this invention which is there to be used by the ordinary, average people for their own purposes and needs. India, Tanzania, Ghana and Zambia began this process a decade or more ago. The Nordic countries believe the idea can spread and be useful in other newly independent developing nations.

Adult Education in China

9.1 Introduction

It is well known that old China was flooded with a big illiterate population. Before the founding of the people's Republic of China Mao Zedong, a leader of the Chinese people, pointed out sharply: "Elimination of illiteracy is the necessary condition for the building of new China." After the founding of new China, eliminating illiteracy has always been one of the basic policies of the state. For this reason, a large scale literacy movement had been quickly launched, the important signs of which were

activities of propaganda and education with the whole population, mobilization of all literates in the country to take part in the literacy teaching programme, and organization of millions of illiterates to attend various forms of literacy classes. At the same time the country took a series of effective measures in literacy work. These included the setting up of a systematic administration from the Central Government down to the grass roots political organization, the allocation of tens of thousands of full time cadres in-charge of literacy, a great deal of investment and the establishment of a complete set of rules and regulations. These included targets, the standard of literacy to be achieved, a system of examination and inspections and systems of encouragement and rewards to teachers and students. It got tangible results reduced the adult illiteracy rate to 43% in 1959 from 80% in 1950.

Having accepted exploitation of the intelligence of its human resources as the basis for improving political and cultural quality of the nation, China has adopted a three pronged educational policy of preventing the flow of new illiterates in the society through universal primary education, eliminating illiteracy through mass literacy campaign; and improving literacy skills through post literacy education, with the programmes geared towards the achievement of four modernisations namely Agriculture, Industry, Science and Technology and National Defence. Adult education in the People's Republic of China is a mass undertaking affecting several hundred million people under the guidance of set policies of the party and government. It takes place through rather formal class instruction and correspondence courses, through radio, television and individual study programme in an organized, purposeful and planned way. The target population includes not only factory workers and peasants but also leading cadres at all levels, staff members of all sorts and engineers and technicians.

Background and Present Situation :

In the thousands of years of slave and feudal societies of China, the labouring people, who created the old civilization were almost deprived of rights and opportunities to receive education. Before the founding of People's Republic, over 80 percent of the workers and 95% of the peasant were illiterate.

China's Adult Education System was developed during the Chinese Revolutionary Movement as a means of enlightening the broad masses of workers and peasants and facilitating social change. Its history stretches back to early 1910s. The first workers school was set up in ANYUAN COUNTY JIANGXI PROVINCE in 1922. The early spare time peasant's schools as they are often called, also date back to the 1920's when there was an upsurge of peasant movement. In different periods of the New Democratic Revolution the Chinese Communist Party consistently paid attention to workers and peasant's education and as far as was possible, provided for it political and material support. Since the establishment of the People's Republic, the Chinese government has used workers and peasants education as an important means for developing the national economy and consolidating the people's democratic dictatorship.

From 1949 to 1980, over 132 million illiterates became literate through large scale literacy programmes; over 39 million adults graduated from spare time primary schools; 4.9 million from spare time secondary schools and 1.28 million from spare time higher educational institution. A network of adult education from literacy programmes to higher education has gradually taken shape. In recent years the education of workers and peasants has been highly valued as a strategic measure in the modernization of the country. That is the reason that the illiteracy rate among the young and middle aged peasants has now

fallen to 20 percent, which was more than 80%. Just after the founding of new China more than 40% of the young and middle aged peasants now have at least primary school education, while over 30% have Junior Middle school or above educational level. In China, it is claimed that a vast majority of peasants can read books and newspapers and appreciate state policies and programmes, and have raised the quality of their life by exposure to new concept in science and technology. However, viewed from the situation of the whole country, there is still a hard journey to go in combatting illiteracy. There are a number of reasons for it :

1. The unbalanced development of economy has resulted in the unbalanced development of education including literacy work.
2. Most of the illiterates and semi-literates are women. According to the third National Census of 1982, by sample analysis of 65.98 million people above the age of 12, women made up 69.61%. Of the total illiterates and among the illiterates between the ages of 12-40, women account for 76%.
3. Most of the national minorities do not have their own written language.
4. Most of the Chinese have Chinese, as their written language which is more difficult than alphabetic writing. This gets half the result with twice the effort.

Adult Education in Countries of the Region :

The people's Republic of China is considering the perspectives for future development in adult education. The guiding principles are : proceed from actual conditions, seek truth from facts, do a solid job and emphasize practical results. In staff workers, the goal, till 1985, was for 80% of primary school graduates to achieve an

academic level of middle school graduates, more than 50% of middle school graduates to end up as technical secondary school graduates and some of the high school graduates to become college graduates. In peasants education, the general goal was to raise the academic level of all the peasants to that of middle school graduates. In the implementation of the programmes China is trying to :

- Strengthen leadership by adult education.
- Formulate and revise the policy favourable to the consolidation and development of adult education.
- Improve the conditions for running schools.

In China, the proportion of the education budget allocation to peasant education at one stage was as high as 3.8% but recently it has been around 1%, the money being used for full time teachers wages, spare time teacher allowances and text books. It is noted that it represents only a small part of the total expenditure on adult education within China, because of contribution from other sources such as workers, peasants and enterprizes. It is not free for all. Learner's contribution is normally expected.

Aims and Standards :

In the pre-1948 period, literacy movement was organised by the Chinese National Y.M.C.A. the aim was to teach a basic vocabulary of 1,200 characters. These were supposed to be equally useful to Shanxi Peasants and Shanghai Textile workers. The aim set up by the more recent movement has been about 1,500 characters for peasants and 2,000 for workers and in each case these have been chosen according to the requirement of the particular group. Mao, proposed a text book, compiled by local people, but to be approved by the local education authorities, containing a few hundred characters devoted

to the activities of region with a few devoted to provincial and national matters. Above this standard the provincial or city education authorities should prepare suitable text books.

National Educational Policy :

The third plenary session of the 11th Party Central Committee in 1978 spell out the National Educational Policy and the entire planning of management of Universal Primary Education (UPE) and Literacy Programmes (LPs) is based on the policy. The policy is of "preventing, eliminating, improving", that is preventing the flow of new illiterates in the society, through achieving universal primary education, eliminating illiteracy through mass literacy campaign, and improving literacy skills of the new literate through post literacy education in the form of spare time primary, secondary and technical education. According to this policy UPE is to be achieved by 1990 and literacy by 1995. Thus while the broad outlines of the policy are defined, the provinces, townships and village chalk out the implementation strategies with necessary adjustments to meet the local needs of the people, but all the same time, in conformity with the national policy.

The UPE and LPs are regarded as the basis for the exploitation of human intelligence resources and enhancement of political and cultural quality of the nation. Therefore, the Chinese government devised in 1980 that the goal of UPE should be realized illiteracy among twenties and youth and middle aged people, should be eliminated throughout the country in various ways, in order to meet the needs of the "Four Modernizations". Education of science and technology in China is of strategic importance. The policy of "Four Modernization" therefore, constitutes the basic element in the promotion of UPE and also for LPs.

Within the overall national policy framework, the responsibility for implementation lies with the provinces. As far as UPE is concerned the teachers can be assigned by the state or they can be appointed locally. The assigned teachers are paid by the state, whereas the locally appointed teachers are paid from the funds collected at the village, township, or country level. Teachers in LPs are paid on hourly basis. Building maintenance and equipment costs of a primary school are met by funds raised through collection by the villagers. The National government gives a fixed percentage of funds to various provinces on the basis of pupil population. The expenditure on education in each province varies, depending upon its size, location, population and other related matters. There are Education Committees at county level, township level and village level, to guide the programme of UPE and LPs.

Universal Primary Education :

In accordance with the regulations of the Ministry of Education each province is expected to organise the programme of UPE in its counties townships and villages. The measures of implement UPE include the following :

—Strengthening the leadership at all levels practically and effectively.

—Having understood the significance of primary education for the realisation of 'Four Modernisations', leadership has been strengthened in the fold of UPE. Thus one of the important figures in the municipality, country, or township government is held responsible for educational undertakings in the area. Through a process of regular contact, the government gives support to education in terms of manpower and financial resources so that the school in the area overcome the existing difficulties and the programme of UPE is pushed forward.

Building up of Teaching Contingent :

Qualified teachers are considered very necessary for the promotion of UPE in order that a stable contingent of competent teachers is available. Upgrading of the teachers competence through reorganisation of ranks has been done by providing training, developing the secondary normal education system where such training is organised and by intensifying the training of Inservice teacher so as to raise their academic level. The main sources of funding are the state allocation, funds raised through local collections and money offered by the individual.

Variety of Forms of Schools :

The duration of schooling for primary education varies depending, upon the development of an area. In urban areas it can be for six years whereas in rural areas it can be for five years. In addition to full time primary schools, simplified schools are run where only Chinese language, mathematics, general knowledge and lessons in morality are taught. In some classes only Chinese language and mathematics are taught and the pupils are required to know some 2,500 Chinese characters and four fundamental operations of arithmetic - addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. In remote areas 6 or 7 years is not necessary the age for starting school. It differs in many areas. The counties which are backward, both in economy and in culture, and where the enrolment rate in primary schools is far below the average and where a high rate of repetition and dropouts is found, special measures have been adopted. These include extra allocation of funds for education from the annual budget of the province. In regions where there is a shortage of qualified teachers, seniors, middle school graduates can be recruited through an examination and for a group of disadvantaged counties, a normal secondary school can be set up. The teachers get excellent pay and special attention. He is paid monthly

allowances in addition to the regular salary. They are also granted extra home leave every year and their travelling expenses are paid by the government.

Literacy Programmes:

Apart from paying adequate attention to promote and expend UPE, positive measures have been taken to organise literacy programmes. These measures include:

(a) **Systematic Planning:** In the implementation of literacy programmes care is taken that the tasks and responsibilities of the parties involved are clearly identified. Generally in the townships, contracts are drawn, according to which the task for LP is entrusted to an individual so that teaching, learning and the standard of literacy are guaranteed. The responsibility system has aroused the initiative of the locality in LP and improvements have been claimed in this field.

(b) **Strengthening of Professional Contingent:** One person is responsible for the literacy programme in each township. He engages himself in the organizational work for LP or adult education, in culture and technology under the leadership of the county and township governments. Teachers involved in LP are recruited in line with the policy of appointing those who know teaching and recruiting local people of talent. Accordingly, local primary school teachers, educated youth, demobilized soldiers and retired people who have enthusiasm for LP, with education upto the level of Junior Middle School or above and are capable of teaching how to read and write and are chosen. Most of them render voluntary service and some get proper reward from the township or village. Those with outstanding achievement in LP are praised and awarded a prize by the provincial, municipal or county government.

(c) **Reinforcing Management:** In order to improve efficiency, management of literacy programmes, has been

closely related to the productive activities and life of the peasants. Regulations have been formulated for teachers and students and special efforts are made to mobilize and organize the illiterates as well as literacy work among adults. A regular examination is held at the end of the academic period. Every school works out its teaching plan and time table, and it is expected that the teacher will make careful preparation so that the participants qualify in the examination. The literacy programme is of two years spread over 180 hours in each year. Slack farming seasons of two months each in winter and spring provide opportunities for intensive learning of 13 hours a week, while in the remaining eight months for about three hours only. The spare time technical education class is held twice a week for four hours. Spare time junior middle school classes have been started for children to let them continue their schooling, and factories also have spare time schools. A county wise examination of about two hours is organised by the county education and cultural offices and those who pass it are issued a diploma. For a peasant, the test is that he should be able to read, write and use 1,500 Chinese characters but for a worker it is 2,000 Chinese characters.

It is expected that a person who can read and write 1,500 Chinese characters will be able to read a newspaper which is the main instrument of continuing education. Spare time primary schools also offer learning opportunities to the neo literates. Special norms have been laid down for attainment at the end of post-literacy phase.

d) Organisational Mechanism and Management : At the national level there are separate departments of primary education and adult education. In each province municipality and autonomous region there is a Bureau of Education, under which there are separate offices for primary and adult education. At the country level also

there are separate officers responsible for primary education and adult education in literacy, post-literacy, technical courses etc, but have a common in-charge. At the township level, the position is similar. At the village level, there is a leading group of villagers with village head as its leader to ensure coordinated action for UPEs and LPs. Primary teachers are recruited at the county level and are trained in a local secondary schools. Non-teachers are also assigned and they are given a training of one week at the county level.

The community has given full support in terms of resources both for UPE and LP. Many factories run their own adult education/literacy programmes. The courses of functional literacy and technical education in various fields are offered in literacy and adult education. Teaching learning materials for primary schools are prepared and distributed at the central provincial level of the development of education.

There are separate cadres for supervising primary schools and literacy classes, but both report to a common authority at the country level which coordinates both the programmes. Rules and regulations have been framed for the completion of literacy course by illiterates so that literacy plan is achieved. In the village Changhong, it was noted that adolescent below 15 years, who failed to complete the five years of compulsory Primary education, were not allowed to join factories in the township and village even as apprentices and a fine of 15 Ynas each year was imposed on them. Similarly, the illiterates who could not complete the literacy courses were not given jobs in the factories and also had to pay 15 Ynas each year as literacy fee. Literacy is accorded high priority in China and consequently programmes of universal primary education and literacy have come to be regarded as two of the country's significant programmes. The Government of

China considers education necessary for modernisation and development.

Workers Education :

This kind of education means spare time and full time training of workers and staff members in science, technology, business management and general knowledge. In 1979, in all 72 Universities offered Correspondence Courses including 30 under graduate subjects and 17 subject of a technical nature. The same year, there were 200 colleges for workers and staff members in Shanghai. Total enrolment was as large as 50,000. Now students are accepted after succeeding a city wide entrance examination and they study a full time, or spare time basis.

Elementary classes are generally conducted by individual factories and workshops that jointly may offer advanced classes. Large enterprise individually or jointly may run their own spare time universities for workers and staff members. Other may run by specialised companies, academic societies or associations. The government education department may operate workers school education programme via radio, T. V. while regular colleges educate more by means of correspondence or night university.

The enterprise select their own teachers for education from; amongst college graduates assigned by state. Engineers and teachers from regular schools are also invited to teach and remunerated according to the number of classes/hours, they teach.

At present about 50 percent of enterprises have established worker's schools or short term training courses. These had a total enrolment of 1.53 million in 1980. In accordance with the diverse needs of national reconstruction, as well as the working adults, diversified forms of education are encouraged and flexible programmes offered :

- (a) Full time secondary technical or general schools and worker's colleges have been setup are run by cooperation and factories, and spare time secondary or primary, technical or general courses are offered at the workshop level.
- (b) Workers spare time secondary schools are run by full time secondary schools, and evening classes. Advanced correspondence courses and professional training classes for cadres are sponsored by some full time universities and colleges.
- (c) Local spare time secondary schools or colleges are sponsored by mass organizations, such as trade unions and scientific associations in cooperation with education institution.
- (d) Administrator's schools or short term training classes are sponsored by industrial departments, enrolling factory directors and enterprise leaders in courses or broadcast programme in economic management.
- (e) Television programmes are offered by the central Television University jointly sponsored by the Education Ministry and the Broadcasting Administration. The later offers general purpose and professional foundation courses, mainly in fields of science and technology. Provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions have also set up their own television colleges, which organize the educational programmes of the Central Television University and some cities have set up television secondary schools and television technical schools.
- (f) Examination programmes have been designed for higher education using individual study, the government takes measures to encourage pursuit

of higher learning and there has been a state regulation passed which stipulates that anyone who seeks higher education through independent study, completes all required courses and passes unified examinations, should be recognised as a college graduate and be awarded a corresponding diploma or certificate. The workers who enroll full time or part time in all categories of workers' education schools or colleges are paid their full salaries and enjoy labour insurance and welfare benefits. The educational expenditures are born mainly by the state.

According to a survey, about 50% of the workers and staff members are young people and middle aged persons. Most of them are under the educational level of secondary school graduates and 56.7% are illiterate. The percentage of technical personnel is very small.

Peasant Education :

The People's Republic in China is a country with 80% of its population in rural areas. Agriculture is the foundation of the national economy and consequently peasant's education is an essential factor in raising the scientific and cultural level of the whole nation. In the history of Chinese revolution there was a tradition of devoting much attention to the education of peasants and their cadres. In recent years this tradition has been further enhanced and new developments have been made. The number of literacy programmes and different kind of technical classes have been increasing year by year while the quality of education is also improving. One fourth of all rural counties have eliminated illiteracy and have shifted their emphasis to the development of spare time primary education, both cultural and technical.

The main participants in peasant education are the

young and middle aged commune members, agricultural technicians and cadres at the commune and production brigade levels. Because of the great difference in economic and cultural conditions in different areas, and the great variety of the learning needs of the target groups, very flexible and varied forms are developed to organize peasant education.

- (a) At the production team level, literacy classes are framed.
- (b) At the production brigade level, spare time primary or secondary schools are established, recruiting part time teachers from local secondary school teachers or graduates.
- (c) Rural full-time school set up affiliated spare time peasants schools.
- (d) At the people's commune level, part-time agricultural technical schools are set up to train technical personnel in agronomy, forestry, husbandry veterinary science, farm machinery, irrigation and water conservancy and accounting.

Peasants cadres are trained at different levels and agricultural technical personnel are offered courses geared to their needs and initial training. For historical reasons, the Chinese peasants scientific and cultural education levels, are relatively low. Out of the young and middle aged commune members, 30% are illiterate or semi-literate and about 40% of them are at level of primary education. Peasant education in the People's Republic of China still has a very arduous task to accomplish.

As education of peasant requires a great numbers of teachers, who must come from local sources, "those who know how to teach". Most teachers are educated youth in the country side but full time teachers from nearly

primary and middle schools and technicians from agronomical and low stock breeding stations are also invited to help on a part-time basis. These part-time teachers will be compensated for their absence from their regular jobs according to the local standards.

Adult Education for Women :

Although, overall, more women than men participate in adult education activities, their presence and their views appear to have had little impact on educational organizations and policy until the 1970's. The United Nations 1975 World Plan of Action for the Decade for Women, listed minimum objectives which governments were urged to adopt. They fall into four major concerns education; employment; health and welfare and the social, political, and economic spheres. The International Council for Adult Education (ICAE) 1979, in its Annual General Meeting proposed a five year plan to increase women's participation in adult and non-formal education programmes. The International Labour Organization (ILO), Medium Term Plan (1982-87) gave prominence to the problems of working women, and was concerned with the impact of their work, incomes and roles in society of the changes occurring in the economy and labour market at the national and international level. The ILO envisaged that in the developed countries a process of economic reconstruction would involve a reduction of these industries in which women are predominantly employed, and that in the developing countries modernisation and technological change would seriously threaten the already low incomes of rural women.

System of Administration :

At the national level the Ministry of Education has established within it the Bureau of Workers and Peasants Education, which also looks after Correspondence, Radio

and Television Education and independent study programmes. Education departments at the provincial, municipal and autonomous regional level have their division of workers and peasants education. At prefectural and county levels there are sections or offices of workers and peasants education. The grass roots level has education departments in factories, mines and other enterprises. There are full time staff members in the People's Communes. To coordinate the efforts of different social sectors and regions, appropriate commissions and mass organizations have been set up. At the national level there is the State Commission for the Administration of Workers Education. Most provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions have established corresponding organizations which draw responsible members from trade unions, youth leagues, women's federation and other relevant organisations. These carry out joint efforts in policy making, planning and measure concerning workers and peasants education. In April 1981, The All China Association of Adult Education, was established. The Government has set about formulating the worker's education act to provide a legal basis for the administration of worker's education. According to instructions given by local government at each level to mobilize the whole society, work out programmes and realize the goals of adult education.

Teacher Training and Adult Education Research :

A key problem in developing and improving adult education is training qualified educators, using full-time teachers as the mainstay and part-time teachers in active roles. The educational administration in the People's Republic of China attaches great importance to the training of teachers for workers and peasants education. Full time colleges and universities and inservice teacher training institutions undertake this responsibility. Some of the teachers have been enrolled in full-time retraining in key universities and colleges. Only 0.5% of teachers are full

time in factories and mines, of these are few in rural areas. Some provinces and municipalities and autonomous regions have teachers colleges or teacher training classes. According to incomplete statistics, 68,000 full-time teachers and over 250,000 part-time teachers have been recruited upto 1980.

With the flourishing of educational sciences in the People's Republic of China, research in adult education has taken a new turn. The Ministry of Education promotes adult education research in several parts of the country, particularly through the Central Institute of Educational Research. A number of provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions have also established appropriate research institutions staffed by full time research workers who are engaged in compiling text books, studying teaching methodology and training teachers.

The exploitation and full utilization of human resources are the basis of the modernization process. As a developing country with a population of 1,000 million, the People's Republic of China open Vast Vistas, in its advance towards modernization, for the further development of adult education.

Role of Adult Education :

Adult educators, concerned with the poor, depressed and unprivileged must take up the responsibility of making men and women aware of the need to commence this three pronged attack to win the war against poverty. This places a great responsibility on adult educators. It also clearly indicates the importance that must be placed on women's education. In recent years the education of workers and peasants has been highly valued as a strategic measure in speeding up the modernization of the country.

Types of Schools :

The general principles of running China's schools are to combine learning with production; take measures to suit

local conditions, teach students in accordance with their aptitude and maintain flexibility.

Workers-peasant education is a component of national education in China; as a continuation and a compliment to the formal school education, its task is to impart knowledge to workers and peasants and to train specialists. The government and department of all levels always keep in mind the potentialities of adult education where they work out overall strategies of school education. They also make relevant worker-peasant education plan to re-inforce formal education. In order to facilitate the implementation of worker-peasant education plans, have been set up in government educational institutions at all levels. In addition to the responsibility of government departments of education, non-government organizations also play an important part.

In order to make adult education more popular and effective, along with formal school system some other forms of schooling is also provided like part-time schools and classes and spare-time schools etc. The difference between the two is that the former is an alternative to normal work, while the later essentially takes part in addition to a normal working day, though in practice the distinction may become blurred.

Spare-time Education :

Spare-time education did not begin with the new government in 1949. Literacy classes were organized for the Chinese workers in France during the First World War. James Y.C. Yen of the Y.M.C.A. worked in France, and then in China. In 1923 a National Association of Mass Education was set up. In 1922 Mao Ze-dong himself set up a similar movement in Hueran based on the Y.M.C.A. work, but using different text-books. The method of using, husband teach wife, son teach father, those knowing more characters teach those knowing fewer, was instituted by

Xa-Te-Li, the well known Communist teacher of Mao-Ze-dong and Commissioner of Education at Xanon. The same method was used by Tao. Conditions of the past eighteen years have enabled a comprehensive spare time education system to be developed. The aims of new system were first set out in June 1950, in the directive on spare-time education issued by the Government Administration Council of the Central People's Government. Spare-time education was seen as the most important means of raising political, educational and technical levels of the masses of workers and staff members. In 1960, after several years of renewed attention, the same aims were repeated.

Development and Organisation :

The 1950 directive laid down that spare time education should be organized by the government education departments and by trade unions. At the central level, it envisaged a national committee on spare time education for workers and staff members, set up by the Ministry of Education the All China Federation of Trade Unions, the Ministry of Labour and other bodies. The central body was to be concerned with policy, planning, curricula, expenditure and rules, while the local committees concerned themselves with local problems. Within the factories, mines and offices the detailed organizational work was carried out by the trade union organisation. For a time, the management whose job was initially only to supply facilities for classes, took over the running of cultural and technical studies, while the unions continued to run political education.

In 1958 directive, the control of workers education was handed over to the party committee of each enterprise. The control of cultural and technical studies reverted from the management to the trade unions. While at the local level organization of spare-time education was being decentralized, [in Peking the CC CCP and state council were

again turning their attention to the question of a spare-time education committee. According to the June 1950 directive, spare-time education was to be financed from the cultural and educational fund, which the factory or the enterprise contributed to the trade union organization.

One of the biggest problems in developing spare time education has been the provision of teachers in sufficient numbers and of the right quantity. The 1950 directive clearly foresaw the difficulties and attempted to meet them to teach the literacy classes. It called on organizers to mobilize all literate staff members, workers and members of their families to teach in primary classes and make them understand that teaching illiterate is a glorious task and duty. It went on :

"In principle, teaching primary classes shall be a non-remunerative or quasi-remunerative work, while honourable mentions and material awards shall be given to teachers who have done outstanding work. Political education was to be given by leading comrades in the factories or teachers of political courses in the local secondary and higher schools. Finally, it urged that all technical personnel in the factories and enterprises shall be mobilized to take up the glorious task of training technical workers for the country and to volunteer to be the teachers."

The directives suggestions for technical education were training classes, research classes and master apprentice contracts, depending on local conditions. But it stressed the need for regular examinations and the desirability of rewarding good students with promotion and teachers with a prize of award.

Time allocations were also made in the direction. Primary and technical classes were to meet at least twice a week while the intermediate higher and political classes were to meet at least three time a week, each time

for at least 90 minutes. An important provision which was probably often ignored was that on study days the students may be free from overtime work or from taking part in meetings.

Technical materials for the intermediate or higher general education classes were to be similar to those used in the regular schools, or the short term secondary schools for workers and peasants, but were to be condensed.

In 1955, the Ministry of Machine Industry published directives on the establishment and running of technical education at the secondary and higher education level. Specialist courses for training technicians were to be either a five year course of 12 hours per week, or a six year course of 9 hours per week.

Some Examples of Spare-time Education :

1. **Factory Organised :** Harper describes the education which took place in widely published factory, the Wusan industrial work of North East China, during the early fifties. The trade union organized a weekly programme consisting of one hour of inspection and discussion of the work of the trade union production teams, three hours of political education, two hours of political theory, and one and a half hours on each of four nights devoted to cultural education.

The Mining Industry was one of the earliest or organize a comprehensive system of education. The NCNA reported that by November 1955 every mining centre had at least one spare-time school. In all the industry operated a total of 349 schools with an attendance of 140,000 miners and other workers. The majority of classes were still literacy classes at that time, but numerous short technical courses especially to [introduce modern social techniques were also held.

Some ideas of the difficulties of organizing spare-time

education can be seen from the experience of the Harbin United Meat Processing Plant. This plant began spare-time education in 1948, and by 1959 had a complete range of courses from literacy classes to university level. The plant had a total of 5 full time and 127 part time teachers, but of these only 9 were qualified to teach to university standard, only another 16 could teach senior high school or technical courses materials. In October 1959, 98% of the young workers were enrolled in classes and during the year 1958-59 they maintained a 95% attendance record.

In 1961 the plant began to have difficulties owing to the irregular supply of carcasses following the bad harvest. This led to transfer of workers from shop to shop and shift work was introduced. Many workers were sent to work in the rural areas. Education was completely disrupted, largely because it was organized on the basis of workshop and production team.

An example of joint enterprise was the technical college set up by the Peking Electric Tube Factory, the North China Radio Factory and the Peking Telephone Factory, in 1960. Specialised courses were provided in telegraphy, manufacturing of radios and their parts, manufacturing of electrical apparatus, machine production and some conductor production.

China Reconstructs for July 1962, reported on the spare-time college set up by Wuhan Heavy Machinery Plant. Students attended for 9 to 14 hours a week on Monday, Wednesday & Friday evenings and Sunday mornings. Workers got half a day off week with a pay to study, and one to two days to revise before examination. Tuition was free but workers had to pay for books and micrographed texts. The first spare time school started in Shanghai in 1956, and by 1962 a total of 200 had been established in different parts of the country.

2. Correspondence Courses : Education by

correspondence as an alternative to formal education was not known in Pre-1949 China. The commercial press in Shanghai had run the first courses in 1914, in Chinese language, English, Mathematics and various commercial subjects. Later other courses were started, nearly all in the coastal cities. But it was only after 1949 that the necessary official support was forthcoming and correspondence courses developed into a serious alternative way of getting qualified.

Many full time third level institutions set up special departments to run correspondence courses. These departments had a full time staff whose job was to enrol students, prepare curricula and teaching materials and to run an advisory service for students. The Peking Mining Institute had such offices in every major mining centre in North and North West China. Until 1963 courses were financed by the sponsoring institutions but then the Ministry of Education began giving special grants for correspondence course work. Students were charged very low fees to offset costs of tuition and books. In many cases courses were provided free. Correspondence courses were provided at three levels. The highest level were four to six years courses in such subjects as mining engineering, chinese literature or history. The second level were two to three years courses in such subjects as Mathematics or Methodology.

Some institutions ran a wide spectrum of courses. People's University, Peking ran courses ranging from a six month course in logic to a five year course in Factory Management. Students taking courses were supplied with text-books, notes and study guides. Wherever, possible teachers and laboratory work was also provided. Lecture were sometimes given over the radio, or on tapes which are lent to the students. Various tests are given during the courses. There is an entrance examination,

terminal tests and at the highest level students write a thesis or submit design projects which are defended orally. Those failing at any stage must repeat that stage.

In 1963 Peking Review reported that People's University in Teachers Training Institute alone had graduated 10,000 students in economics, finance, political science and factory management and more than 3,000 secondary school teachers, since their courses began.

Part Work Schools :

The various types of school which will be described in this section have been developed to meet different needs and cannot be sharply distinguished from spare time education on the one side and those full time institutions where productive labour plays a big part on the other. But typically the characteristic feature of part-work school is that the pupils can be regarded as primarily workers of some kind, whose working time is shortened to allow them to study.

Definitions and Aims :

The relationship between studies and work depends on the level of the school. The first part work schools to be set up were agricultural high schools, intended to provide peasants, children with a form of secondary education which would be economically viable and directly related to the needs of the local community. In 1963-64, the emphasis has turned to the problem of making primary education universal and many schools and classes have been started where there was little or no relation between what the child does at work and what he studies during school hours.

Writing in 1958, Lu Dirs Yi pointed out that part work schools were one facet of CCP policy of combining education with productive work with the aim of eliminating class differences.

The Guangdong provincial party, pointed to the danger that if the poor and lower middle peasant remained without education they would also have no political power. Part work school were the only way to remedy this situation. Many of the articles on part work school emphasize that they are cheap to run, and therefore often the only way in which the children of poor and lower middle peasant families can obtain an education.

Oa Meng Tue gave some comparative figure to support this argument. Xinhui Xan cost of keeping one student at :

a full time Junior High School	—76 Yuan/year
a state subsidized agricultural high school	— 6 Yuan/year
a full time agricultural technical higher school	—350 Yuan/year
a part time agricultural technical higher school	—140 Yuan/year
Gujing Commune cost of keeping one student of :	
a full time junior high school	—130 Yuan/year
a part time junior high school	—14 Yuan/year

First Level Schools :

Detail of the development of part-work primary schools began to appear after the National Conference on Rural part work schools, held in March-April, 1965. The conference decided that the part work principle was to be future mainstay of the educational system for secondary and higher education and should also be extended in the primary field.

In isolated villages with only a few children, or among such groups as the boat people attendance might have been almost zero. Poor families rely on their children's help in such work as gathering fuel or fodder, and watching

grazing animals. Full time primary schools were often located too far for the children to walk. And many parents remained unconvinced that the schooling provided would be of value of children, whose future was to be in the village. Part work primary schools are of different kinds, depending on the local needs. Sometimes the school runs full time during the slack season and then on a part time basis, no classes altogether during the busy season. Part time classes may be held in the building of the full time schools, or they may operate in offices of even the childrens home. The last may be the case in small villages with few children, where the teacher travels round from village to village, teaching a day here and a day there.

Part work primary schools have been cited in some areas for their use in raising the attendance figures for girls.

Second Level Schools :

The pioneers of the part work principle were the agricultural high school set up in Jiangbu and other areas during 1958, 59 and 60. The schools have largely been set up and maintained by the local communities. In the cities schools are mostly run by factories and mines. In some cases the schools are financed by the local communities, while in other cases there is a big state subsidy. Teachers may be paid by the state. At the second level productive labour really fulfils the educational role in a high proportion of schools.

The type of the work performed and the time allocation depend on the type of school. At first most of the rural schools were half day, but this was later changed to full day school during the slack season and full day work in the fields at busy times.

By the early sixties a number of different kinds of second level part work school existed. The first was a

technical school, the second was a general agricultural school and the third was a school teaching elementary courses in only few subjects—politics, language, arithmetic and principles of agriculture.

Third Level Institutions :

A number of institutions have been set up at the third level standard of education. The first such institution to be described was the Communist Labour College set up at Nanchang in the mid of 1958. In February, 1960 second such institution was set up to the Industrial Labour College. A number of part work teacher training colleges have been reported, using the part work principle to train teachers for part work schools.

In 1965 NCNA reported the setting up of three institutions of higher learning in Guiyang in Guizhou, Province. The Agricultural Labour College set up in Xuntain Xian, province in 1965 had courses in agronomy, animal husbandary, veterinary science and forestry. A similar college was established in Yongqing Xian, Guagxi Province in 1965. An example of an urban college is in Wuhan. It had four departments.

Adult Education in Kenya

10.1 About the Country and the People :

The Republic of Kenya is approximately 582, 647 square kilometers in size and lies across the Equator on the eastern seaboard of Africa. The Indian Ocean coastline stretching from the Somalia border in the North to Tanzania in the South, 608 km. long. The Republic of Somalia lies to the East of Kenya, Ethiopia lies to the North, Tanzania to the South and Uganda to the West. Kenya is made up of seven provinces. These are : Coast, Central, Rift Valley, Nyanza, Western, North-Eastern, Eastern and Nairobi area.

Topography :

From the hot, humid coastal belt, the land rises gradually inland through dry bush country (the Nyika) to the Savannah grasslands and the high land, where rainfall is plentiful. A considerable area of the country is ideal for high-potential mixed farming in which temperate crops can be grown and mixed farming is advocated; in the drier area some four-fifths of the area is ideal rangeland. On the western rim of the Rift Valley, the land slopes down towards Lake Victoria and the Uganda border. The central part of Kenya is extremely mountainous, but the vast expanse of the North-Eastern Province varies from featureless desert in the East to the more rugged Turkana country West of Lake Turkana.

Climate :

The altitude in Kenya largely governs the climate and the land above 5,000 feet, enjoys a temperate climate, with fairly good rainfall. Being on the Equator, however, there are no marked seasonal changes and, for most parts of the country there are two rainy seasons on the ground to the East of the Rift (i.e. around Nairobi) there are "long rains" (March to May) and the "short rains" (November to December).

While the highland and the Lake Victoria region of Nyanza enjoy good rainfall reaching as much as 80 inches a year at Kericho, the greater part of the North-Eastern Province has little or no rainfall at all. Other fairly dry areas include Masailand, Kitui and coastal hinterland where the year's total rainfall varies between 10 inches and 20 inches. It has many big lakes i. e. Rudde, Victoria, Naivasha etc. The Tana is Kenya's largest river, draining off the slopes of Kenya and the Aberdare Range into the Indian Ocean to the North of Mombasa. It is liable to flooding and the people who live along the lower reaches are marooned for several weeks each year. It is only navigable by small craft.

Mt. Kenya, a long extinct volcano which lies some 160 kilometres north-east of Nairobi is Kenya's highest mountain reaching 17,058 feet. It carries not less than 12 glaciers beneath the twin rocks of Batian and Nelion. The snowline is perennial above 15,000 feet.

Although Kenya is one of the world's most modern developing countries, its history dates back many thousand years to the stone and iron Ages when most parts of the country were inhabited by man as evidenced by archaeological objects which have been excavated in many places. The first intruders at the Kenya Coast were the Islamic Arabs in the 9th century A.D. who settled in the Lamu area and then spread out southwards. They were later followed by the Europeans starting with the Portuguese.

The outside world knew very little about Kenya's hinterland until Europeans and traders too began to penetrate and settle in the country in the 19th century.

When Kenya was declared a British Protectorate it sparked off a long series of land-grabbing activities which dispossessed indigenous people on the pain of death and the land allocated to white settlers. This policy continued for more than 50 years. Land was leased to the farmers for 999 years.

During the World War II, African political leaders were banished to remote areas to ensure that African youths were lured to fight the "white man's war". African masses then organised to found a country-wide party Kenya African Union of which the late Mzee Jomo Kenyatta became President in 1947. Since then Kenya Africans endeavours to attain political freedom never relaxed. During seven years of "The Emergency" (1952-59) thousands of indigenous people were killed while others suffered in prisons and detention camps.

The late Mzee Jomo Kenyatta died in August 22, 1978. H. Daniel arap Moi assumed the Presidency in

accordance with the Constitution. He was subsequently elected President of the Party and as President of Kenya. Since taking office, President Moi's achievements have remained colourful, convincing and flawless. Guided by the Nyayo Philosophy of peace, love and unity and armed with socio-economic prescience and political wisdom alongside administrative alacrity, President Moi has made Kenya the envy of many nations.

Kenya became independent in December 1983. Her colonial history goes back to 1901 when she was declared a British Protectorate. In 1920, she was declared a British colony. The pre-independence education system was characterized by racial segregation in which there were three separate systems of education for Europeans, Asians and Africans, respectively.

Faith in the ability of education to promote economic and social development is proverbial to our time. Among such problems are those associated with unemployment and social inequity, as the numbers of education unemployed reach serious proportions and lines of social stratification based on differential access to educational opportunity became increasingly clear. Yet, belief in the therapeutic potential of education for solving such individual and national problems remains strong. Individuals continue to want it, politicians prescribed it and the Government allocates 30 per cent of the national budget to it. At the same time a number of international advice and finance agencies make proposals for its beneficial modification. In presenting research findings which bear on these questions, we aim also to throw light on some of the salient characteristics of the emerging pattern of development in Kenya.

10.2 Educational Pattern :

The system of education inherited in 1963 had been designed to serve colonial and minority interests.

making farms more productive. While these two functions are not incompatible, each of the major national examinations as presently constituted—certificate of primary education, the school certificate, the higher school certificate and the university degree—displays a common mechanism by which the few are chosen from the many who are called. A further consequence of the pattern of educational demand is that Kenyan schools—both primary and secondary—tend to be ranked by parents and students according to their perceived ability to guarantee educational and social mobility.

(b) The Formal Education System : Formal education was introduced to the people of Kenya by the missionaries as a strategy of evangelizing the indigenous people. The missionaries therefore dominated the provision and administration of education throughout the colonial era. In content the education in the colonial period was designed to save colonial and minority interests. The educational system was racially segregated with gross imbalances, especially in the educational opportunities. Africans who formed the majority of the population had the least representation in the secondary and higher education. For example in 1963, one year before independence out of 25,903 pupils, who were attending secondary schools only 8,033 were Africans. Thus the African representation in secondary education was a mere 31 per cent. The restrictive nature of colonial system of education was also felt in the area of curriculum. It was infused with British content, practice and methods.

Secondary school examinations were set and marked in Cambridge, in England. There was very little technical or agricultural component in the curriculum. The lack of relevance of the education provided during the colonial period was evident at the time of independence. A large majority of Kenyan children of school age were not going

to school and only a small number had passed through the system. This was reflected in the critical shortage of educated and trained local manpower that was urgently needed for economic and social development of the new nation. It was important to prepare "a psychological basis of nationhood" and education was a significant instrument for doing this. Independence brought a new era that changed the occupational roles for Africans. They had to assume responsibility in the administration of the country. Approximate education was necessary both in quantity and in quality to prepare them for the roles they were to play. It was to restore the African personality and recapture his cultural heritage which was diminishing as a result of the imposition of alien culture while at the same time preparing the Kenyan society for its place in the modern international community.

In order to meet these new challenges, education required a new content and a co-ordinated national programme. It could no longer be left in the hands of the missions and therefore the new state had to assume responsibility for a secular educational system that also respected the faiths of all communities and individuals while continuing to welcome the participation of missions and other voluntary agencies.

Various Commissions that have reviewed the education system in Kenya during the past two decades have pointed out that Kenyan education.

(c) Technical Education : An interesting development in the formal education sector has been in the area of technical education. The importance of technical and vocational education was recognized from the start. By 1966 the scope of the syllabus for technical education was enlarged for the few existing technical schools. Courses in agricultural education were started at a number of secondary schools in 1964-65. By the end of 1972

twenty schools had adequate facilities for teaching agricultural education and over 4,000 students were enrolled in the programme.

Kenya has two national polytechnics, one at Nairobi and another at Mombasa and a third one is proposed. Their purposes are to train middle and higher level technical manpower to meet the growing demand for skilled craftsmen and technicians for public and private sectors of the economy. Most of the courses at the polytechnics involve initial in-service and sandwich training for those working in industry. The number of students enrolled in these institutes has been rising steadily from 1272 in 1979 to 2048 in 1981.

In addition to the two polytechnics there are ten Institutions of Technology Operated on self help basis. The idea of building "Harambee Institutes" of technology started in 1972. It was a further evidence of community awareness of educational requirements of the country. The courses follow syllabuses approved by the Ministries of Higher Education and of Labour.

Programmes which follow up formal Schooling :

According to Kipkorir these programmes aim at giving the school leaver, practical skills which will enable him to support himself through self employment, that is they aim at improving his chances of securing formal employment through the attainment of further qualifications.

10.4 Non-formal Education :

The non-formal educational programmes in Kenya can be divided into three main categories. First, there are supplementary programmes for young people still in formal schools. These include Young Farmers' clubs and 4K clubs. Young Farmers' clubs are formed largely in secondary schools and each club is affiliated to the Agricultural Society of Kenya. Their aim is to encourage youth to take

up agriculture after leaving school. 4K clubs are led by voluntary workers. Each has 26-32 members. The primary objective of the clubs is the agricultural education of young people in their homes; however, the majority are attached to primary schools or youth centres.

Second, follow-up programmes for school leavers and dropouts include village polytechnics, the National Youth Service and various projects sponsored by the University of Nairobi Institute of Adult Studies, village polytechnics are for school dropouts. They are organised by the national village-polytechnic central committee, local sponsors, and local management committees. The programme of instruction is based on local needs and aims to achieve local economic self-reliance. The aim is to train rural youths for social employment or self-employment.

The National Youth Service is a two-year voluntary work and education programme for Kenyans between 16 and 30 years of age. The objectives are to place unemployed youth into an environment that will inculcate good citizenship and provide an opportunity to contribute to the social and economic development of the country; to promote national unity; to help alleviate unemployment hardships among young persons; and to contribute to the economy of the country by helping to conserve, rehabilitate, and develop Kenya's natural resources.

The University of Nairobi, Institute of Adult Studies is the main sponsor of extramural studies and includes a correspondence-course unit, the Adult Studies Centre, and the Adult Education Training Unit. It plays the role of a servicing agency, which cooperates with and assists other organizations engaged in adult education and fills in gaps in their activities.

Third, alternative programmes for Kenyans, with non formal education include programmes of the Adult Education Division and the youth centres of the Ministry of

Educational opportunity was very unevenly spread across the country and Africans did not even form a majority of those enrolled in secondary and higher education. Its curriculum was infused with British content, practice and ethos. Even the examination, which crucially determined career prospects, were set and marked in Cambridge. There was very little technological agricultural and adult education.

Primary school enrolments have risen from 900,000 in 1963 to 1,500,00 in 1973, representing an enrolment of 65 per cent of the relevant national age group. The number of secondary students rose from 30,000 to 130,000 over the same period. Machinery has also been created to process the certificate of primary education which is now administered annually to 200,000 pupils in over 6,000 primary schools throughout the republic. The former Royal Technical College has developed through University College status to that of an autonomous national university with approximately 6000 students, and its own constituent colleges.

1. Goals of the Educational System : The tremendous expansion that took place in Kenya's educational system between 1964 and 1975, and the social changes that accompanied the expansion, dictates a review of the national goals of education in 1964 and again in 1971. In 1980, the National Committee on Educational Objectives and Policies (NCEOP) outlined the goals for education in Kenya for the 1980 as follows :

(a) Education should promote national unity by removing social and regional inequalities and increasing adaptability.

(b) Education should promote the full development of the talents and personality of individuals within the content of mutual social responsibility. It should also promote cooperative, social, ethical, and cultural values

conducive to national unity and positive attitudes to work and incentives.

(c) Education should promote national development and an equitable distribution of incomes. It should assist youth to grow in to self-disciplined, self-respecting, and mature people.

(d) Education should also be integrated with rural development. This should be done by the allocation of resources, cooperative education, and coordinating the activities of institutions with the development of their localities.

The NCEOP report further emphasized the need to relate education to employment opportunities and to the requirements of rural development. It also promoted the view that education should systematically teach youth the values of society.

In order to make the statement of the goals in the 1964 and 1971 Reports operational, the then Ministry of Education restarted the national goals of education as follows :

- (a) National unity,
- (b) National Development,
- (c) Economic needs,
- (d) Social needs,
- (e) Social Equality,
- (f) Respect and Development of Cultural Heritage.

2. Structure and Size of Education Effort :

Formal education was introduced to the people of Kenya by missionaries as a strategy for evangelizing the indigenous population. The missionaries, therefore, dominated the provision and administration of education throughout the colonial era. The content of education in the colonial

period was designed to serve colonial and minority interests. The University of Nairobi and its constituent college, the Kenyatta University College, provide University level education. In addition, there are two other institutes (a) The Institute of Adult Studies and (2) The Institute of Development Studies. The institute of adult studies provides professional training for personnel engaged in promoting adult education. It also has centres in various parts of the country. These centres also organize public lectures on topical subjects for general education.

3. The Nairobi campus grew out of the Royal Technical College of East Africa which started in 1956 offer technical and commercial education for the countries of East Africa. Two institutes were added to the college, the Institute of Adult Studies in 1965. The Institute of Adult Studies now provides professional training for personnel engaged in promoting adult education. It also has centres in various parts of the country offering extra-mural classes in various subjects to individuals studying privately for academic and professional improvement. These centres also organize public lectures on topical subjects for general education. The three countries of East Africa then decided to establish their own national universities in 1970.

10.3 Adult Education Programmes :

It is mostly been done through the medio of non-formal education. According to Kipkorir (1970) non-formal education may be defined as "all organized instruction which is outside the institutional frame-work of the formal education system". The non-formal education programmes in Kenya can be divided into three main categories :

- (i) Supplementary programmes for young people who are still in formal schools e. g. young-farmers clubs, U-K clubs.
- (ii) Follow-up programmes for leavers and drop-outs

of the system e.g. village polytechnics, the National Youth Service and various projects sponsored by University of Nairobi Institute of Adult studies.

- (iii) Alternative programmes for Kenyans with non-formal education e. g. programmes of Adult Education Division and the Youth Centres of the Ministry of Housing and Social Services.

Follow-up programmes attempt to provide primary school leavers and dropout with some sort of education or training which will enable them to get employed or self-employed, preferably in rural areas e.g. Christian Industrial Training Centres, Commercial Correspondence Courses, the Village Polytechnics, National Youth Service etc.

(a) The Nature of the School System : Despite the expansion of educational provision which has just been described, only about 50 per cent of Kenya's youth complete the basic seven-year cycle of primary school and approximately 25 per cent of this number continue to some kind of formal secondary education. A second related factor is that both students and teachers take each stage of the educational ladder as a preparation for the next rather than a terminal training for adult life. This perception is again a rational response to a reward structure in which salaries are tied to years of formal schoolings an level before being allowed to enter the next and a social structure where there are few alternative channels of mobility. Since at each stage only a minority can enter the next highest level of schooling and the rewards to gaining such entry are high, it becomes very important to pass the relevant selection examinations. The unfortunate consequence is to lock up a proportion of school place and to divert still more money into school fees that might have been better spent, for example,

Housing and Social Services. These offer literacy courses, vocational training, and courses to prepare adults for various national examinations.

Organizations which sponsor non-formal supplementary educational programmes include the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA), the Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA), Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, the St John's Ambulance corps, the Kenya Red Cross Society, the Outward Bound Trust, the Kenya Voluntary Development Association, the World Assembly of Youth, Young Farmers' and 4K clubs, the World Council of Churches, and the Motor Mart Trust.

(a) Village Polytechnics : These are for placement of school leavers and drop-outs. They are organized through the national village polytechnic central committee, local sponsors and local management committees.

The cultural committee is co-ordinated by the National Christian Council of Kenya. It has representative from sponsoring organizations and Government Ministries of Housing and Social Services, Culture, Education, Finance and Economic Planning, and Agriculture.

The Directors and staff of these polytechnics are employed by social management committees. Those who finance the polytechnic include World Council of Churches, Motor Mart Trust, Self-Help Units, Local Churches, fees by trainees and sale of products by the trainees. The programme of instruction in these polytechnics is based on the local needs and aims of achieving local economic self-reliance. It includes construction of bakeries, stone houses, brick-making, manufacture of utensils, masonry, carpentry, tailoring and dressmaking, domestic science, typing, book-keeping, sign writing, tanning, tractor driving, poultry-keeping, agriculture, and animal husbandry and academic subjects. The aim is to train youths for local employment of self employment.

(b) National Youth Service : This is a two-year voluntary work and education programme for Kenyans between 16-30 years of age. The objectives are :

- (i) To put the employed youth into an environment that will inculcate good citizenship and provide an opportunity to contribute to the social and economic development of the country.
- (ii) To promote national unity by bringing together young persons from all parts of Kenya for training and work in a project of national importance.
- (iii) To help alleviate unemployment hardships among young persons, by providing employment, education and training, to prepare them for future productive employment after completion of their service.
- (iv) To contribute to the economy of the country by helping conserve, rehabilitate and develop Kenya's natural resources.

Among its development projects, road building, bush clearing and tree planting, general earth works and agricultural research are the major ones.

(c) University of Nairobi's Institute of Adult Studies : This is the main sponsor of Extra-mural Division, Correspondence Course Unit, Adult Studies Centre and Adult Education Training Unit. It plays the role a servicing agency which co-operates with and assists other organisations engaged in adult education and fills in gaps in their activities. It also offers a limited number of Kenyan's opportunity to continue their education. It also improves the relation between the university and the community at large, and strengthens and professionalizes the field of adult education.

Education by Correspondence : The Kenyan Experience

During the last few years, there has been a growing awareness in Africa of the need to introduce correspondence education in order to meet educational needs in the face of such obstacles as scattered population, poor communications and a lack of sufficient qualified manpower. As a result, many countries—including Kenya, Ethiopia, Uganda, Tanzania, Zambia and Malawi—have set up the process of starting Government sponsored institutions geared to specific national priorities. Some of the more technologically advanced countries of Europe, North America and Asia have developed correspondence education at all levels, and have demonstrated that this method of instruction can be used effectively, for instance, to upgrade and train large numbers of teachers in order to improve the quality of teaching in the schools; to provide training for large numbers of technicians in order to meet society's increasing needs for technical skills; or to offer opportunities for secondary and higher education to the large number of students for whom there are not enough classrooms or teachers. Rightly used, correspondence education is an invaluable means for a country such as Kenya to organize and enhance its human resources for social and economic development.

The idea that Ministry of Education should establish radio and correspondence education in Kenya was first proposed in 1964. At that time the Kenyan Education Commission urged consideration of a combination of lessons by commission suggested that if the required facilities could not be provided by the already established commercial correspondence colleges, it may be necessary for the Ministry itself to enter the field of education by correspondence.

Two years after publication of the commission's report,

the Government of Kenya sought technical assistance from the United States Agency for International Development (U.S.A.I.D) for the establishment of the correspondence course unit (C.C.U.) in the Institute of Adult Studies, Nairobi University College (Now the University of Nairobi).

In 1969, the C.C.U. undertook a second programme to run concurrently with the K.J.S.E. Preparatory Courses. At the request of the Ministry of Education, the C.C.U. agreed to cooperate with the Kenya Institute of Education in its in-service training course for unqualified teachers (U.Q.T.).

A survey conducted in 1968 revealed that a large proportion (90%) of C.C.U. students were teachers. The remaining 10 per cent included clerks, farmers, housewives, and members of the armed forces, the police and cooperative society staff. A typical student is between 21 and 40 years old, married, and has more than four dependents, including members of his extended family. His house has no electricity, and he owns very few books. He may have access to a very small library, but it is probably many miles away and impossible for him to use regularly. He does not buy a newspaper regularly, but he does own a radio, which is his source of news and information about the world outside his own small community. It is mainly for this reason that radio programmes prepared by the C.C.U. and broadcast over the voice of Kenya are used to supplement the correspondence instruction.

Operation of the Correspondence Course Unit :

To date, the C.C.U. has offered the following subjects at both form 1 and form 11 levels : English, Kiswahili, History, Geography, Mathematics (New), Biology, Physical Science etc. These courses are not merely "cram" courses for the K.J.S.E., but are designed to cover the academic

work normally done in two full years of study in secondary schools. Moreover the modus operandi of the C. C. U. involves planned and systematic selection, preparation and presentation of teaching materials, as well as consolidating and assessing what the student has learnt. Hence, the instructional programme provided by the C. C. U. comprises a synthesis of the following :

1. Correspondence study guides, text-books and other teaching materials such as maps, mathematical instrument sets, science experiment kits, etc.
2. Supplementary radio broadcasts covering the material in one or more lesson of the study guide.
3. Marking of students' lessons by qualified secondary and university teachers.
4. Occasional face-to face teaching during residential courses.

The unit is equipped with its own printing, duplicating and binding facilities, registration, mailing, records and accounts sections, a self-contained radio recording and production studio and a small science laboratory. The Adult Studies Centre adjacent to the C.C.U. provides all facilities for residential courses for upto 60 students. The C. C. U. staffing complement comprises 11 members of academic staff, all appointed under university terms of service. It is gratifying to note that all member of staff except for the tutor in Biology are Kenyans.

All lessons in the study guide contain selective (rather than exhaustive) self-test exercises with which the student checks his understanding of the study material. Alternate lessons also require written assignments to be submitted to the C.C.U. for marking enrolment is open throughout the year, and a student can work as fast as he is able to,

depending on his knowledge of the subject and the amount of time he can devote to his studies. Some students have been able to cover the two-year K.J.S.E. programme in one year. Other's have taken longer than two years.

The C.C.U. has realised that apart from the enrolled students there are other people using its study materials in less formal ways. It is difficult to estimate the number of teachers and other adults not registered with the C.C.U. using the study guides and textbooks for their private study. Nevertheless, it seems reasonable to assume that this "overflow" is quite substantial and that it has some broad social benefit.

Evaluation :

In the fifth year of its operation, the correspondence course unit was anxious to evaluate its work. The final report of the evaluation produced some interesting assessment of the unit from the students' viewpoint, as well as many useful recommendations for improvement based on the students' comments, criticism and suggestions.

The survey was carried out through a questionnaire sent to students enrolled in the KJSE Programme. It was thought best to concentrate the survey on K.J.S.E. students since the inclusion of students in the unqualified teachers programme, with their careful selection, high motivation and the highly structured approach of their programme, might have biased the results of the survey. It was carried out on a sample of some 2,200 K.J.S.E. students. The sample was stratified by region. Since some provinces of Kenya, particularly Nairobi, Rift Valley and Central, exceed others in student enrolment, a non-stratified sample would have given these regions disproportionate weight and consequently distorted the national picture.

There is no doubt that the majority of the C.C.U. students, mainly teachers, are highly motivated by the immediate benefits in terms of promotion and the increased

salaries they receive as a consequence of passing the examination. Many of them have also become aware of the urgent need to upgrade themselves in their professions as the lower grades are gradually being phased out and as the jobs are getting more competitive. It is little wonder then that the completion rates are high.

105 New Direction in Literacy and Adult Education :

In October 1978, Moi became Kenya's President, following the death of President Jomo Kenyatta. The 1979-83 National development plan, which was released in January 1979, was aimed at the alleviation of poverty through provision of basic needs. One basic need was adult literacy. Thus on Jamhuri (Republic) Day 12th December, 1978, the President ordered the elimination of adult illiteracy during the current plan period. Presidential directives in Kenya have the force of law. Suddenly everyone was talking about mass literacy. Government machinery was set up in motion to translate the directive into action.

As a result of meetings and other consultations within Government, a full Department of Adult Education was formed early in 1979, first through the amalgamation of the two existing government units involved in literacy, the Board of Adult Education and the Division of Adult Education. But these two units provided only a selection staff and the majority of staff had to be recruited, 4,000 full-time staff members were authorised for recruitment including 138 graduate level education officers; 200 supervisory staff; 662 administrative staff (storemen, clerks, drivers, typists, audio-visual machine operators etc.); and 3000 literacy teachers. Funds were made available to hire 5,500 part-time teachers. There were also about 7,000 volunteer teachers. The recruitment exercise was over in the first two years. It took longest as far as education officers were concerned, as these had to be wooed from

other employment. Government was also very generous with funds, first to pay for the huge complement of staff and also to pay for the other services. The programme is largely financed by the Government.

The short-term objective of the literacy programme is to eliminate illiteracy among all adults in Kenya within a specified period and to ensure that the objectives, which follow from the short-term one, include the use of the acquired skills in promoting self-reliance and personal development; inculcation of a sense of social responsibility and respect of socially accepted virtues (e. g. honesty and integrity) promotion of national unity.

The organisation of the Department of Adult Education is typical civil service, with a strong central administration and professional staff headed by a Director. These headquarters staff members are divided into four divisions: Training and Teacher Advisory Services; Curriculum Development and Materials Production; Budgeting, Planning and Finance and Administrative Services including field services coordination. The field services are again organised following the normal civil service in Kenya. Education Officers are spread in all the eight provinces, 41 districts and 200 divisions. The literacy teachers serve at the village level. There is an average of 74 teachers for supervisor. The Education Officers and the 200 supervisors at the divisional level perform both academic and administrative tasks. Not only do they ensure that the day-to-day business of teaching literacy is done, they also ensure that materials are produced and that the teachers know how to approach the adult learners.

Methods of teaching reading and writing vary from synthetic or formalistic at one extreme to the global or analytic at the other. The method currently used in Kenya, encourages the use of learner's experiences, through discussion of subjects of interest, learners are introduced

to sounds and words that are most familiar to them. The teaching of numeracy is also based on experience with the view to stimulate and maintain interest. The learners are then introduced to the basic operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, leading to simple fractions and decimals, and then to the measurements of surface, space, weight, time and money. From past experience, it is difficult to measure in absolute terms the total length of learning which will result in literacy. Some individuals may become literate in their local language in the space of 3-4 months, while others, through no fault of their own, may take considerably longer.

It has been in the interest of the Department to encourage the training of its staff throughout the country. So far 3,000 full-time teachers have all undergone a two weeks introduction course. This is in cooperation with the Institute of Adult Studies of the University of Nairobi. Part-time teachers are currently receiving special courses organised during week-ends. The supervisors have been given a two months course at the Institute of Adult Studies, University of Nairobi, while District and Provincial Adult Education Officers took a one month course at the same place. Many officers of the Department have already taken diploma courses in Adult Education at the Institute. A number of other officers have been to and some still are in overseas countries studying for further degrees in Adult Education and allied disciplines.

Literacy teaching is being done in mother-tongues except in places such as towns, plantations, and industrial centres, where mixed ethnic groups exist. For the latter, Kiswahili, the national language is used right from the beginning. The rest master their local language before switching to Kiswahili. Adult Education Officers and experts in the local language under consideration. Production is usually done in the location where the primer

would eventually be used. The draft so produced is then pretested before printing for distribution to the classes. Materials at the post-literacy level are also being prepared.

(a) Programmes of the Adult Education Division of the Ministry of Culture and Social Services :

The main objectives of these programmes are :

- (i) Organization and development of National Literacy Campaign as a functional literacy and numeracy programme.
- (ii) Organisation of vocational and technical training centres.
- (iii) Organisation of part-time courses to prepare adults for CPE and other examinations.
- (iv) Research, curriculum development and inservice training.
- (v) Support for community education programmes sponsored by other government departments and voluntary agencies.

The chief programme is the National Literacy Campaign.

(b) Youth Centres of the Ministry of Culture and Social Services :

This was established as a social and occupational refuge, for young people who were unable to participate in the country's formal education system. Recreational facilities are offered to prevent Juvenile delinquency and vagrancy. Programmes of instruction are administered by National Youth Council. They are also offered vocational courses like masonry, carpentry, tinsmithing, and domestic science. The funds for these centres are donated by Dulverton Trust Sove the Child Fund.

Recently Kenya set itself a time period in which to

eradicate illiteracy amongst the affected population within its borders. A campaign was mounted, but the five year period come to an end but the illiteracy problem is still there. No doubt the campaign will continue to be intensified and the approach re-worked out so that the objective can be achieved within this century.

Kenya places many burdens on its schools, its teachers and its educational administrators, for Kenya inherited not only the apparatus of formal schooling from the British Colonizers but also the idea that education is indispensable to social and economic development. The attractiveness of this idea rests at least partly in its vagueness i.e. over a multitude of programmes and projects. But somewhere buried in the principle which links education and development are two specific thoughts. There is, first, the notion that youth must be instructed in the tools and skills relevant to the economic tasks and the technology of the society. Formal education in its broad sense is expected to accomplish more than technological instruction. It is also expected to accomplish cultural norms and expectations associated with adult membership in society and this cultural learning occurs in a variety of pre-adult settings. Certainly one of these settings is the school. Here, in particular, civics and citizenship are commonly taught. Good conduct is taught along with good grammar. In Kenya, education for citizenship includes a heavy dose of nationalism, especially as interpreted through the themes of Uhuru, the self-help movement, and African Socialism. Whatever the practice, there is in principle an ideological commitment to egalitarianism as well. Schools in Kenya thus are simultaneously involved in skill instruction. Social stratification systems have persisted despite the widespread acceptance of egalitarian ideology over the past two centuries. The facts of the matter, being well-known, merit only brief review.

Despite the political successes of the democratic revolution, the spread of egalitarian principles and the universalization of citizenship, there has not been a "levelling" of societies. The persistence of stratification can be seen in social societies organised under very different-political characters and economic principles. Citizens are also distributed along power hierarchies, with enormous powers concentrated in very small groups. Some people do count and are noticed while others, the large majority, are ignored and little noticed.

It is thus a historical fact that stratification and inequalities persist despite the acceptance of egalitarian principles. The Bureau of Educational Research at Kenyatha University College has a small research of conducting studies in science and mathematics teaching in Kenya, mobility of secondary-school teachers, women's, participation in community development activities, girls', as pirations for education, piaget's Spatial Stages and a study of educational background as affecting personality and earnings. The research unit at the Kenya, National Examinations Council was founded in 1977 as a unit of the Ministry of Education. The task of the unit is to use examinations to monitor performance in schools, to improve and extend the examination, to obtain a wide and more relevant range of skills and knowledge, and to conduct research into the effect of socio-economic factors on performance, the determinants of teacher effectiveness, and so on. The Kenya Institute of Education is basically the curriculum development centre for Kenya and the research it conducts is restricted to curriculum matters.

Future Trends in Educational Development :

Kenya's future education will be determined, to a large extent, by the present national goals, manpower requirements and other socio-economic needs to be served by education, population trends and projections, continued

concern for quality, the country's place in the global society, and of course, the financial resources likely to be available for the education service. In Kenya education for the next twenty years will be considered in terms of present continuing projects and new projects already proposed.

(a) Continuing Projects or Programmes :

(i) Expansion of Education : Because of the high growth of population (with nearly 60% of the population under 20 years as per 1979 census) the demand for education will continue to increase. Given its commitment to provide education to all Kenyans the Government will continue its efforts to expand educational facilities. Parents will also continue to be called upon to voluntarily construct educational buildings, including teachers' houses and provide the necessary furniture.

(ii) Teacher's Education : The country will continue training teachers to replace untrained teachers and to be absorbed in the expending programme. Perhaps pre-service and in-service courses and other short courses will be contemplated. New Teacher's Education Colleges will be built to cater for primary and secondary education sectors. Already two primary teacher colleges have been upgraded to provide diploma courses for secondary school teachers and an entirely new one will be built soon.

(iii) Special Education : Education for the handicapped will be intensified so that as many handicapped children as possible benefit from this service. This is desirable to enable them to live as near normal life as possible. To achieve this, appropriate physical facilities for the disabled, and training facilities and opportunities for teachers of special education, have to be provided. To establish education institutions for development of these teachers will need a substantial financial injection into the programme.

(iv) **Literacy Campaign** : Recently Kenya set itself a time period in which to eradicate illiteracy amongst the affected population within its borders. A campaign was mounted, but the five year period came to an end pretty fast, and the illiteracy problem was still there. No doubt the campaign will continue to be intensified and the approach re-worked out so that the objective can be achieved within this century.

(v) **Education and Productive Works** : Kenya is trying to remodel its education curriculum in order to offer education that is aimed at instilling practical skills.

There are programmes and schools for technical education, home economics, principles of agriculture, business, typing/shorthand and office practice, accountancy etc. Such practical oriented courses are becoming wide-spread. Efforts will be made to give interaction between education and productive work—a new impetus in the spirit of the recommendation adopted by the 28th session of the International Conference on Education held in Geneva in 1981.

(b) **New Projections/Programmes** :

(i) **Correspondence Education** : The Extra Mural Department of the University of Nairobi and the School Radio Education of the Institute of Adult Studies offer education through correspondence and radio broadcasts respectively. It is hoped that correspondence courses will be introduced for those who wish to pursue higher education up to degree level. This will be a welcome move for the many unqualified persons who cannot gain entrance to the university because of lack of places.

(ii) **University Education and Technical Training** : It is planned to establish a second university in an effort to expand high-level personnel training to facilitate the diversification of courses offered at university level.

The curriculum for this university will be technologically oriented. A third polytechnic is also proposed.

(iii) Reform of Educational Structure and Curriculum : It is now proposed that the system will be restructured to 8 years of primary education, 4 years of secondary education, and 4 years of university education. The curricula will be reviewed and revised in accordance with changes, and emphasis will be placed on technical education.

(iv) Intra-African Cooperation : Given that the funding for education must be reduced, especially for high-level training, it is hoped that intra-African cooperation will be cultivated. Programmes such as the African Network of Scientific and Technological Institutions (ANSTI), the proposed African Institute for Higher Technical Training will have to be established.

Adult Education in India

11.1 The Country and Her People

India, also known as Bharat Varsh, is the seventh largest and the second most populous country in the world. Since Independence, India has taken long strides towards progress. She is the world's tenth most industrialized country. She has the third largest number of trained technical personnel after the USA and the USSR. In 1981, India's total population was more than 68 crores. India is rich in natural resources and man-power. Indian economy is predominantly agricultural and about half of the country's national income is derived from agriculture

and allied activities which absorb nearly three fourth of its working force.

The government has invested a lot in educational sector, but the fruit of it is enjoyed by only a privileged few. An Indian generally lack integrity of character, moral and intellectual soundness, feeling of patriotism and love for their fellow beings. These are the ills and products of defective social [structure and bureaucratic set up which is eroding the country's resources. There is a need of planning our educational set up on sound and firm footing.

There used to be less emphasis on the education of the masses. These traditions continued upto 10th century A.D. and thus came the advent of the Muslims. Maqtabas and madrissas were the places where molvies imparted education of theological as well as secular character. This was, however, limited to a handful of privileged people. Mass education was nowhere in vogue. Education of the woman was totally ignored due to the practice of purdah. Britishers set afoot on this land in 18th century and ruled for about a century. Consistent efforts were made by Britishers to introduce a system of education which could produce Indians which would be admirers of their culture.

Some Important Problems

1. **Secular Education** : India is a multi-religious, multi-racial, multi-community society. It has been declared a 'Sovereign Democratic Republic' by the constitution of India, which secures for all citizens, social, economic and political justice, liberty of thought, expression, belief faith and worship, equality of status and of opportunity, in addition to the promotion amongst them all fraternity assuring, the dignity of individual and the unity of the nation.

2. Social and Adult Education : In our constitution we are committed to eradicate illiteracy from our motherland by way of providing free and compulsory elementary education to all the children between the age of 6 to 14. It has also been observed that a child in a literate family or literate community has more chances of retention what he learnt in school. For this purpose it is essential that in order to achieve the target of elementary education the adult education should be emphasised side by side. USSR was able to achieve universal literacy as she put more emphasis upon adult education. This can better be achieved if the recommendations of the Education Commission on Adult Education are implemented both in words and spirit. Firstly, the selective approach is made to the problem by way of identifying the groups which can easily be identified, controlled and motivated for intensive literacy work. For example, the employers in commercial and industrial concerns must be made responsible for making their employees functionally literate within specific period of time. The second attack upon this menace should be to mobilise all available resources to combat literacy. All out efforts by making every body, institution and students responsible to educate the adults should be made by way of introducing "Each one teach one", programme starting evening classes, morning classes utilising unemployed educated persons to teach such groups. Adult women in villages should be given condensed courses. The mass media be used to create the climate for imparting knowledge and skills necessary for improving quality of work and standard of life. Those who got functionally literate should be encouraged to retain it by way of providing reading material. Adhoc courses for adults, correspondence education and continuing education should also be provided for the masses. Those who want to appear in the examination conducted by Boards of School Education or Universities on their

own, without any assistance should be encouraged to do so. The Commission had recommended the constitution of National Board of Adult Education, with representatives from all ministries and important agencies. The Board was constituted in 1969 and had its first meeting on 4th May, 1970 and had made the 14 point blue-print.

1. The organisation of a national campaign for literacy on a war footing and its follow-up, by programmes of publication of literature for the neo-literates, establishment of libraries and organization of continuing education for all the literate adults, including the neo-literates.

2. During the International Education Year, the country should observe an Adult Literacy Week.

3. It endorsed the chairman's suggestion for a national get-together for three days for the exchange of national and international experience on adult literacy and adult education and the formulation of concrete programmes as also pilot projects for dealing with the different aspects of the problem and the special circumstances of different areas and different groups in the country.

4. The pattern of Gram Shikshan Mohim followed by Maharashtra should be considered for adoption by other State Governments with local variations for the purposes of eradication of adult illiteracy as pilot project.

5. It welcomed the programme of pilot projects on adult education proposed to be launched in various parts of the country, both urban and rural, with maximum public participation and the assistance proposed to be provided to state governments, universities and voluntary organisations by the centre.

6. The Board welcomed the action taken by the Education Ministry to include eradication of illiteracy among the items of the National Social Service Programme

for college students and recommended that, in addition, a determined and sustained campaign should be undertaken to involve the entire student population, collegiate as well as of senior school classes, in the proposed mass campaign for literacy.

7. It recommended to the Ministry of Education and Youth Services that in the programmes which are being formulated for youth services, priority should be given to the eradication of illiteracy and the follow-up of adult education programmes.

8. The industrial establishments, both in the public and private sectors, should give a lead in organizing adult education programmes for their workers. Proper legislation may have to be promoted for ensuring the fulfilment of this responsibility.

9. It appreciated the offer of the Minister of State for Information and Broadcasting to allot additional radio time for programmes of adult literacy.

10. The Board recommended for the speedy enactment of legislation for the setting up of public libraries in cities, towns and large villages with emphasis on literature for the neo-literates, and supported by the central library mobile libraries for serving rural areas.

11. It felt that there is a need for training programmes for those who will be undertaking the work of adult literacy and adult education and called upon universities, adult education associations and other concerned institutions to start such programmes.

12. The Board recommended to the Ministry of Education and Youth Services that they should consider the possibility of utilizing the services of the defence personnel, scouts and guides and other appropriate organisations in programmes of adult literacy and especially in the follow-up programmes.

13. Without universalization of literacy, the motivation and channel of communication for the promotion of programmes of family planning, agricultural production etc., will not be adequate and, therefore, suggested that expenditure on adult literacy and adult education relating to those programmes should be regarded as a national investment and a legitimate charge on the resources of these departments.

14. It recommended the setting up of Boards of adult education for all the states and union territories that will include all the concerned government departments and also the voluntary agencies.

Social Education

Social education is linked with higher standard of living. It aims at strengthening social harmony and social solidarity among the people. It is also important for the implementation of Five Year Plans. It helps the masses by way of making them available the technology and fruit of research being created in laboratories and also the knowledge that is already there.

In 1949, a new concept of social education had emerged. It consisted of four elements of education namely democracy, citizenship, health and education. In the light of this the contents of social education were broadened with a view to build up a comprehensive programme of education for life covering numerous helpful activities around the core activity of literacy.

11.2 History of Adult Education

Even when it is a fact that the British Government did not pay attention to adult education programme in India and more so before the end of the 1st World War, some work in this direction was done in Mysore, Bombay and Bengal. However, for our convenience of understanding, we can divide the history of education into seven

periods.

- (a) 1918-1927
- (b) 1927-1937
- (c) 1937-1942
- (d) 1942-1947
- (e) 1947-1978
- (f) 1978-1986
- (g) 1986 to continuing

(a) **1918-1927 (Period of Some Progress)** : After the first World War, there was some awakening in the people who started some political activity, discussed about fanitise and awakened public consciousness. It was partially due to the awakening of the Indian soldiers who went to fight abroad in the British army, observed the situation, social set up, and mode of living of the people abroad. They brought with them the new light, enthusiasm and knowledge. All this brought a type of awakening in the masses, who talked of the values of education. This provided a type of climate which was conducive for adult education programme also. In this period the co-operative movement also gained grounds and co-operative societies were established. All this required a type of basic understanding for which education was a must. It was during this period that Tagore pointed to the lack of contact between life and education as one of the basic causes of our social and economic backwardness. He said that the school must co-operative with the village around it, cultivate land, breed cattle, must produce all the necessaries, devising the best means, using the best materials and calling science to its aid. Gandhi, first propounded the concept of work-centred basic education as a means to resurrect the dying Indian villages. Their approach to rural reconstruction was essentially an educational approach, education in the broader sense being used as an instrument for human development.

During this period Bengal, Bombay, Madras, U.P. and Kerala made efforts in this direction. The Punjab government for the first time made provision in budget for adult literacy and helped in the opening of night schools. In 1927, there were 3784 adult schools.

(b) 1927 to 1937 (Period of Uniform Decline) : This was the period of economic depression and there was a round shortage of food, goods, material and money. This compelled the government to reduce her expenditure and education generally and adult education specifically was the casualty. In addition to it there was communal tension and bitterness. This period was also politically disturbed. Not to talk of the new schools to come up, even the old schools had to be closed down.

(c) 1937 to 1942 (A Period of Progress) : During this period some Congress Ministries came into power. They advocated adult literacy and education. It was for the first time that adult education was accepted as definite responsibility of the government. This led to the a round development of adult education programme, as a result of which more night schools were opened, and a good deal of good work was done by Dr. Syed Mohamood in Bihar and Raja Ji in Madras. In Bengal "The Bengal Adult Education Society" was organised under the Chairmanship of Dr. Rabinder Nath Tagore. Dr. Lauback, an American Missionary who evolved new methods of teaching alphabets to adults give a big impetus to adult education movement. His popular slogan was 'Each one, teach one.'

(d) 1942-1946 (The Period of Decline) : During this period due to the 'Quit India Movement' Congress ministries resigned and II nd World War was also going on. As a result of it there was a round cut on the expenditure of the government. This cut was applied to education and also to adult education. The nation too was not in high spirits. The result was that there was a

set-back to the adult education programme. The Sargent plan was adopted in 1944. It gave a high priority to the removal of illiteracy within a period of 20 years at a cost of rupees 3 crores. However, in spite of it all nothing concrete was done in this direction.

(e) 1947 to 1978 (A Period of Break Through) :

After independence, the Government of India accepted the goal of creating a new social order based on freedom, justice, equality and dignity of the individuals. The realisation of this goal will depend upon the awakening of the masses. India can achieve economic development, social transformation, and effective social security, only if the citizens are educated to participate in its democratic set-up, building up of a new social order and developmental programme honestly, intelligently, and efficiently. It was that after independence, adult education was viewed as education for life and not merely learning of alphabets. It was also accepted as the responsibility of the government.

Markanda, Savita sums by saying, "In 1947 when India became independent, its literacy rate was only 14% and now, while the literacy rate has gone up, the absolute number of illiterates has also increased. According to the 1981 census there are 115.2 million illiterates in the age-group 15-35 while the overall literacy rate is 36.74%. The increase in the number of illiterates has been mainly due to failure provide universal elementary education in the age group 6 to 14; abnormal increase in population; half-hearted approach in the implementation of adult education programmes; and a high drop-out rate. Adult education has a long history in India. In the past there were several interesting forms of non-formal adult education so that an average Indian, who may have been illiterate for lack of access to formal education, was still a man of culture and character. But this system of non-formal education had

its weaknesses, it made people tradition bound, and restricted social mobility. Besides, overemphasis placed on formal education led to the neglect of this tradition of non-formal education, resulting in overwhelming figures of illiteracy."

That though these were characterized by considerable drive and enthusiasm they faded after a few years. The main reasons for the petering out of literacy drives according to the Education Commission (1964-66) were. (a) limited campaigns to achieve a significant advance and penetrate enthusiasm for further effort; (b) sporadic and uncoordinated attempts in the sense that Government departments, voluntary agencies, educational institutions, and individuals did not seek collaboration with other agencies, and preferred to work in isolation; (c) hasty launching of programmes without a planned survey of the functional needs and interests of adults; and (d) least attempts for awakening public interest and stimulating the desire to learn, and inadequate provision for follow-up work.

It was after 1947 that new agencies of adult education came into being. Certain voluntary organisations like the Indian Adult Education Association were formed. Public men of eminence evinced interest in the adult education movement, and espoused the cause of education of the masses, particularly the rural masses. The period 1947-52, can, however, be regarded only as a beginning of the adult education movement.

Post-Independence Spurt

The Post-Independence era in Adult Education is characterised by a gradual emergence of the concept of social education. The Central Advisory Board of Education at its 14th meeting in 1948 expressed the view that the organisation of Adult Education in India had become "imperative". A sub-committee, set up under the Chairmanship of Shri Mohan Lal Saxena, recommended,

inter-alia, that greater emphasis should be laid on general education to enable every Indian to participate effectively in the new social order. It recommended that the Provincial Governments should provide funds for adult education. It laid down targets for the removal of 50% illiteracy in the next five years. At the 15th meeting of the Central Advisory Board held at Allahabad a new impetus to the movement was given by Maulana Azad, the then Education Minister, who called it "Social Education" instead of adult education.

These were years of experimental probings to give shape and substance to the new concept of Social Education which implied a general education of adults in a developing society to enable them, as members of their communities, to work for achieving their social-economic cultural development.

Social Education found a place in the First Five Year Plan with a provision of Rs. 5 crores for organizing literacy classes, community centres, libraries and Janata Colleges. It was also made an integral part of the Community Development Programme defined as "Community uplift through Community Action". Five Social Education Organiser's Training Centres were set. Social Education included literacy drives, establishment of libraries, cultural and recreational programmes, organisation of exhibitions, youth activities, radio groups, community centres and women's welfare. Two Social Education organisers (one man and one woman) were appointed in each Development Block to take charge of this work. The State Governments took up certain other schemes with the assistance of the Government of India, e.g. development of School-cum-Community Centres, intensive educational development (which included 5 model Community Centres, Library service and Janata Colleges) and the establishment of State and District libraries. Out of 55 lakhs of adults

enrolled in the adult literacy classes run by the State Education Departments, 35 lakhs are estimated to have attained literacy.

Again, a provision of Rs. 5 crores i.e. 1.4 per cent only was made for the social education schemes. In addition an amount of Rs. 10 crores was also provided for this item under the programme for Community's Development. Eight new Social Education Organiser's Training Centres were started. The Ministry of Education organised the National Fundamental Education Centre in New Delhi to train District level officers for Social Education. A Library Institute was set up under the auspices of Delhi University in 1958. The Ministry of Information and Broadcasting also took up the production of documentaries, and the use of radio as a medium of mass-education. Rural broadcasts were improved in regard to their educational quality, and community listening sets were provided in larger numbers. Many States set up their Film Libraries, and the Ministry of Education built up the Central Film Library. Several Ministries and Organisations prepared posters for educating the masses on subjects within their purview. The Mysore State Adult Education Council, the Bombay City Social Education Committee, the Jamia Millia, Delhi, the West Bengal, Bihar and Madhya Pradesh Governments and The Union Territory of Delhi brought out suitable literature for the neo-literate adults. The Ministry of Education sponsored Literacy Workshops for training the writers of books for neo-literates, and instituted prize schemes for encouraging production of such literature. The Ministry of Education also encouraged the growth of libraries, especially the State and District Libraries, and initiated the "Integrated Library Service" in some States. Some of the other main schemes sponsored by the Central and the State Governments are described briefly as follows :

- (a) National Fundamental Education Centre

(b) Production of Literature for Neo-literates

(c) Other Schemes :

The State Schemes :

The main items included in the State schemes of the Education Departments are :

(a) Social Education Centres

(b) Production of Literature

(c) Library Service

(d) Audio-Visual Aids.

11.3 Work by Other Agencies

Besides the Ministry of Education and the State Education Departments, Social Education (including adult literacy) is undertaken also by the State Development and Planning Departments in accordance with the schemes drawn up by the Ministry of Community Development, Panchayati Raj and Cooperation. Separate Programmes are worked out by the Ministry of Defence for the Indian Army. The Central Social Welfare Board and the Coal Mines Welfare Organisation of the Ministry of Labour and Employment have their own programmes. Some voluntary organisations actively participate in the programme with or without assistance from the Government.

(a) **Social Education in Development Blocks :** Every Community Development Block had a provision of Rs. 70,000 for Stage I and Rs. 50,000 for Stage II. This provision is earmarked for various items of the programme, including Social Education. The programme of Social Education in the Blocks includes organisation of Community Centres, Youth Clubs, Mahila Mandals, Adult Literacy Centres, Farmers' Groups, Recreation Centres and the training of 'Gram Sahayakas.' The programme also include the training of leadership through participation in various educational activities.

(b) **The Central Social Welfare Board :** The Central Social Welfare Advisory Board generally assisted in the development and improvement of social welfare activities in various types with the help of the State Social Welfare Advisory Board set up by the State Governments in consultation with the CSWB. Financial assistance was given to voluntary welfare organisations undertaking such activities. It conducted programmes for the welfare of women and children, including the running of Welfare Extension Projects.

(c) **Coal Mines Welfare Organisation :** The activities of this organisation include (a) maintaining public health; (b) educational and recreational activities; (c) water supply; (d) other amenities.

(d) **Army Education :** The Indian Army is the largest single organisation in the country for adult education. The education of the soldier begins from the day he joins the Army, and continues till his retirement. Army education is thought of as a process of awakening and cultivating the moral, mental and intellectual qualities of a soldier. Education in the Army is the responsibility of the Army Educational Corps which functions under the over-all control of the Military Training Directorate of the Army Head-quarters. There is a vast net-work of libraries and reading rooms in the various Centres. Special provision of literature for field education is an important feature of the education activities in the Army. Equal emphasis is given to co-curricular activities including group discussions, debates, lectures, dramas, plays, training, in hobbies and handicrafts, visits to places of historical and industrial interest.

(e) **Voluntary Organisations :** In addition to governmental organisations, there are various semi-voluntary and voluntary organisations working in the field of social education, such as the Mysore State Adult Education

Council, the Bombay City Social Education Committee, the Indian Adult Education Association, Delhi, Literacy House, Lucknow, the West Bengal Adult Education Association, the Ramakrishna Mission, and saniketan Rural Reconstruction Institute, West Bengal.

The Third Plan made a total provision of about Rs. 25 crores—about Rs. 92 Lakhs at the Centre, Rs. 540 lakhs in the States and an estimated allotment of Rs. 19 crores for Social Education under the Community Development Programme. The measure of progress in the development of community centres, reading rooms in villages, organisation of youth-groups, 'mahila mandals', village panchayats and the co-operatives has been appreciable. But one aspect of Social Education, and in some ways the most-important, has not been satisfactory. Between 1951-61, literacy percentage has increased only from about 17 to about 24. The introduction of the Panchayati Raj at the district and block levels and the important role assigned to village panchayats render it imperative that in as short a period as possible, a substantial proportion of the adult population should become capable of reading and writing. This is essential in their own interest as in the interest of the community as a whole.

Except in the case of a few States, Social Education is the joint responsibility of the Education and Planning/Development Departments.

Ist, IInd and IIIrd Five Year Plans

In the first five year plan 50 million i.e. 1.4% of the total educational budget, in the second five year plan 50 million accounting for 1.4% of the educational budget and in the third five year plan a sum of Rs. 250 million accounting for 3.31% of the educational budget was spent on adult education.

FIVth ive Year Plan (1969-74) :

In all 282 million accounting for 3.3 per cent of the educational budget was spent on adult education during this period. In this plan Farmer's Training and Functional Literacy project was jointly undertaken by the three ministries of Union Government i.e. Food and Agriculture, Education and Youth Services and Information and Broadcasting. A sum of rupees two crores was allocated to functional literacy programme. It was recommended by the National Board of Adult Education and was to cover 10% of the districts with a population of 10 million illiterates. A sum of Rs. 64 crores was spent in this plan. The other important schemes were :

- (a) Training of workers of literacy.
- (b) Establishment of adult night schools.
- (c) Establishment of National Adult Education Board.
- (d) Expansion of farmers educational and functional literacy to more districts to cover one million adult farmers.
- (e) Continuing adult education as an integral part of community development programme.
- (f) To help university departments to take up piolet projects to conduct research, extension and extra mural lectures.
- (g) In addition adult education for industrial workers in two districts i.e. Indore and Nagpur.

Dr. V.K.R.V. Rao was appointed Chairman of National Adult Education Board with the functions i.e. :

advisory function, planning function, coordination function, production function, mobilising function and research & evaluation functions.

Vth Five Year Plan (1974-79) :

In all 180 million accounting for 1.4 per cent of the

total education budget was spent on adult education. In this plan a sum of Rs. 35 crores was earmarked for social education schemes. In addition the following new programmes were emphasised.

1. Linking Adult Education With Key National Tasks :

It was done by linking with elementary education health and family planning, agricultural extension and co-operation.

2. Strengthening the Motivation of Adults :

It was to be done by co-ordination with schemes like N.S.S.

3. Expansion of Book Production Programme :

It was to be done in Indian languages by way of bringing out low priced books for the use of adults.

4. Establishment of Regional and National Level Institutions :

For production of books persons were to be trained in editing, translation, publishing, illustrations, for which national and regional training centres were to be established.

5. National Book Trust : It was streamlined for production, promotion and distribution of books. It formulated an effective national policy of book development.

6. Strengthening of Libraries : Central, state, district and block libraries were to be strengthened.

7. Youth Classes were to be developed as centres of informal education like Nehru Yuvak Kendras.

11.4 1978 to 1986 :

On October 2, 1978, National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) was launched. The target of the Programme was to cover by 1984 the entire illiterate population in the 15-35 age group (estimated to be 100

million in 1976) by mobilising all possible resources at the Central, State, and local levels. The Central Government in its Draft Plan 1978-83 earmarked Rs. 2,000 million (200 crores), accounting for 10 per cent of the total education budget, for the programme. This was in addition to the financial support to be offered by the states and voluntary agencies.

The programme had three integral components, that is, literacy and general education, functionality, and awareness. In October 1979 a committee under the Chairmanship of Dr. D. S. Kothari was appointed to review the working of NAEP in all its aspects. The committee observed, "The programme has been largely confined to literacy which is not as effective as it should be. Its functional aspect is almost non-existent." After examining various proposals about the usefulness of this gigantic plan, the new Government in the Sixth Five Year Plan fixed the target of 100 per cent coverage of the age group 15-35 by 1990, and allocated Rs. 128 crore for the same. Adult Education Programme was also included in the new 20-Point programme of the Prime Minister.

In India, eradication of illiteracy is no doubt the primary concern, but then there is also the problem of preventing neo-literates and semi-literates from relapsing into illiteracy, and literates from becoming victims of obsolescence due to fast expanding human knowledge as a result of scientific and technological advancements. It is indeed surprising that little is being done to help literate adults retain and use literacy. Concern is shown only when they relapse into illiteracy. As such, the necessity of organising comprehensive adult education programmes cannot be ignored. Education is timeless and is continued throughout one's life. It is open-ended in its locale and can be acquired at any and many places—in the school and college, at work, at play, in temple, mosque or church,

in cultural manifestations and centres, with no limits to the time and means of acquiring education.

The concept of continuing education presumes some educational base on the part of a person which can be continued. It is applicable to all persons, no matter whether they have been to school or not, and irrespective of the profession they are in—be farmers, housewives or artisans. In the Indian context, continuing education assumes importance in two ways: first, for a literacy programme to be enduring, useful, and lasting it is essential that literacy teaching is followed up and ultimately merged with the process of learning which can be made possible through continuing education; secondly there is a need to organise continuing education programmes for school dropouts, educated unemployed skilled youth, professionals, semi-skilled groups, older members of the society and women.

Adult education term includes both literacy and continuing education as the Education Commission (1964-66) has observed, India will be required to gear its resources to eradicate (a) mass illiteracy; (b) launch universal elementary education programme to arrest further growth of illiteracy, and (c) provide facilities for continuing education to men and women permitting flexibility at entry, and exit points, depending on the availability of resources.

J.P. Naik Committee (1979) recommended operational models in the form of village continuing education centre; education centre with continuing education facilities; mobile libraries with continuing education facilities; and existing village libraries with continuing education facilities, for organising post-literacy and follow-up programmes.

Adult/Continuing Education Programmes of Universities: The Universities will have to broaden their educational functions to meet the new challenges. This

has been realized throughout the world, and as a result University University all over the world have opened Adult/Continuing Education Departments. Indian Universities have also made efforts in this regard. Some of them have been doing extension work for a long time now. In most of the Universities in India, the Departments of Adult and Continuing Education have been established. A good many of them have started correspondence education also. Indira Gandhi Open University has come into being. Some more such institutions are to come into being. Now the Open University Education and Correspondence Education have become as strong channels of education as the formal university education is.

While in other countries the concept of continuing education has been accepted in practice for the last 75 to 100 years, in India serious efforts to promote education as a continuing and life-long process was first made in 1961 by a small band of dedicated academicians under the leadership of Dr. Mohan Mehta. In 1967 Indian Universities Association for Continuing Education (IUACE) a voluntary organisation was set up. The University Grants Commission has also contributed towards the promotion of continuing education in India. Apart from financing partly and sponsoring some of its programmes, the Commission gives grants to Universities for setting up departments of adult and continuing education, and has also worked towards conceptual clarification by spelling out aims, objectives, programmes, methods and organisational set-up of continuing education. Quite a few conferences, seminars, symposia and workshops, both at regional and national levels, have also been organized not only to involve universities but also to determine their role in continuing education.

There are three major organisational partners of continuing education operating at the university level in

our country. These are :

—Continuing Education Department as a teaching department similar to other university departments, like the one set up at the University of Madras.

—Continuing education as a non-formal education unit.

—Continuing Education Departments offering general programmes emphasising the extension role, like those operating at SNTD, Bombay, Poona, Baroda etc.

The areas in which cooperation of universities and colleges would be sought are: developing need-based curriculum and teaching/learning material; organising training programmes for functionaries at different levels; preparing evaluation tools and undertaking evaluation studies, which would also help in formulating follow-up programmes; identifying community needs; and carrying out applied researches. It is being proposed that adult education and community work should form part of the curriculum, and both teachers and students should be given academic credit for it.

11.5 National Adult Education Programme (1978)

Phasing of the Programme : NAEP will be inaugurated on 2nd October, 1978. However, for all practical purposes the period from until the end of March, 1979 will be treated as the period of intensive preparation. Preparatory action would include the following areas :

1. Substantial stepping up of the programme from the existing level of approximately 0.5 million to at least 1.5 million in 1978-79.
2. Creation of an environment favourable to the launching of NAEP.
3. Preparation of case studies of some significant past experiences, particularly those where the

failures or successes have a bearing on the planning and implementation of NAEP.

4. Detailed planning of the various segments of the programme by appointment of expert groups—this would include preparation of detailed plans for each State and Union Territory.
5. Establishment of necessary structures for administration and coordination and necessary modification of procedures and patterns.
6. Identification of various agencies, official and non-official, to be involved in the programme and taking necessary measures to facilitate the needed level of their involvement.
7. Undertaking of necessary exercises to clarify the required competencies, particularly in literacy and numeracy, which would form part of all field programmes.
8. Development of capability in all States for preparation of diversified and need-based teaching/learning materials as well as making available teaching/learning materials for starting the programme.
9. Development of training methodologies, preparation of training manuals as well as actual training of personnel at various levels to launch the programme.
10. Creation of a satisfactory system of evaluation and monitoring as well as the required applied research base.

Every effort shall be made to cover the entire population in 15-35 age-group by the end of 1983-84. The present projections of targets are as follows :

Year	Annual Coverage (in millions)	Cumulative Coverage (in millions)
1978-79 (Year of preparation)	1.5	1.5
1979-80	4.5	6.4
1980-81	9.0	15.4
1981-82	18.0	33.0
1982-83	32.0	65.0
1983-84	35.0	100.0

What is aimed is that by 1983-84 a capability to organise adult education programmes for 35 million persons would be built up. At that stage it would be necessary to diversify the programmes—the aim then would be to strive for a learning society in which life-long education is a cherished goal.

Creation of Favourable Environment :

What is necessary, it is indeed a pre-requisite for motivation of all persons to be involved in NAEP, is to engender a spirit of hope and confidence.

A critical role can be played, in this context, by the mass media—films, T.V., radio, Newspapers, publicity posters etc. This would require an ingenious and coordinated effort, in which official and non-official media shall have to converge to serve the objectives of the programme. In addition, a number of other methods could be explored, including holding of seminars and symposia, celebration of the World Literacy Day in schools and colleges, etc. The various ways in which an environment can be created shall have to be studied in detail and necessary measures taken as soon as possible.

The Approach :

The two most basic problems faced by our country are poverty and illiteracy. One obliges a vast mass of our

citizens to live under conditions of want and degradation, the other hinders opening of the doors of development and affects the ability of the poor to overcome their predicament. Indeed, the problem of poverty and illiteracy are two aspects of the same stupendous problems and the struggle to overcome one without at the same time waging a fight against the other is certain to result in aberrations and disappointments. NAEP is visualised as a means to bring about a fundamental change in the process of socio-economic development; from a situation in which the poor remain passive spectators at the fringe of the development activity to being enabled to be at its centre, and as active participants. The learning process involves emphasis on literacy, but not that only; it also stresses the importance of functional upgradation and of raising the level of awareness regarding their predicament among the poor and the illiterate.

One of the recurrent issues in adult education planning is motivation of the adult learners. Even when they can be stimulated to participate in adult education programmes initially, their interest is not sustained and they tend to drop out. It is more so with women scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. The creation of an environment favourable to the organisation of mass programme can act as effective motivation. However, there may not suffice and the matter needs to be examined in a much greater detail. A systematic follow up programmes shall have to be organised almost with the beginning of the NAEP—they would comprise a well organised system of mass production of books and their dissemination and inclusion in the communicational circuit of the neo-literates. It would be desirable to follow up adult education programmes with organised development action. The adult education programme should strive to establish mutually supportive linkages with that developmental activity.

In addition to voluntary agencies, a number of other agencies shall have to be identified for implementation, these could include Nehru Yuvak Kendras, Universities, employers of various categories etc. The role of Government would primarily to be coordinate the activities of these various agencies and to fill in the gaps. In several parts of the country the Government may have to take almost the entire responsibility. Wherever becomes necessary to do so, a beginning would be made with a few selected districts and within a selected district with a few compact blocks. The objective would be to concentrate effort in well defined geographical area and then to enlarge the activity. Broadly speaking, the range of the types of the programme which may be organised are :

Literacy with assured follow-up, conventional functional literacy, functional literacy supportive of a dominant development programme, literacy with learning-cum-action groups, and literacy for conscientization and formation of organisations of the poor.

Resource Development

At the national level the Directorate of Adult Education as well as the various agencies of the Central Government and national level voluntary agencies would form the National Resource Group. The important level in resource development is the State Resource Centre (SRC) which, in cooperation with the National Resource Group and continuously interacting with the field can become the focus for resource development. One of the important functions of the SRC is to strive for devolution of resource base at the district or project level. The efficacy of SRCs will depend on the professional and technical developed by them, their capacity to secure and coordinate resource (of institutions and individuals) available in the region they purport to serve and on the support provided by the State Governments concerned. Resource developed being of critical importance

the Central and State Government as well as other agencies should be willing to provide all necessary financial and administrative support for this purpose. The following practical ways shall have to be tried for this involvement. This would include :

- Well-designed surveys to ascertain the learner's needs.
- Realistic testing and try-out of methods and materials by securing inhibited reaction of the potential learners.
- Holding of frequent conferences and camps where workers in the State/District Resource Centre think and work with the rural people.
- Identification of a number of articulate village youth and orienting them in the Programme with a view to eliciting through them the latent as well as manifest problems of the potential learners groups.
- Systematic involvement of persons living and working among the rural people.

Technical Learning Materials :

Since it may not be possible to develop teaching, learning materials at the district/project level according to learner's needs within the next one year, as an interim measure SRCs will prepare materials in standard regional or sub-regional language/dialects. By the second or third year it should be possible to prepare materials at the district/project level.

Training : The categories for whom training shall have to be provided would include :

- Key functionaries at the national and state levels.
- Professionals and experts in specific areas such as curriculum construction, preparation of teaching/learning materials, training, evaluation etc.
- Functionaries at district, project and block levels.

- Field level supervisors.
- Adult education centre instructors.

Monitoring, Evaluation and Applied Research :

It is also important to have inbuilt arrangements for applied and coordinated research so that the experience of NAEP is systematically analysed and provides guidelines for future action. Universities and institutions of higher education as well as SRCs will have an important role to play in evaluation and applied research.

The "instructional" Agencies

(a) **School Teachers :** Although, ultimately work in an adult education centre could be made an essential part of the teacher for the present it would be desirable to keep this entirely voluntary. It would also be fair to provide an honorarium of Rs. 50 per month for this work.

(b) **Village Youth :** There are a large number of unemployed or under-employed village youth with some education who could be entrusted this responsibility after they are given a carefully planned training for necessary upgradation of their academic level and an orientation for this responsibility. Work among women and tribal people can be greatly facilitated if persons drawn from their groups are—re-introduced as peer leaders to organise the adult education centres.

(c) **Students :** Either as a part of the National Service Scheme, which may have to be suitably modified, or in any other appropriate manner, students in institutions of higher education may provide a valuable agency for organisation of adult education centres. Students involvement in this programme should be voluntary but the leaders in the university system shall have to create an atmosphere in which students find this work worthwhile and satisfying.

(d) **Ex-servicemen and other Required Personnel :** Retired personnel do need financial supplementation of

their income, equally important they also need an occupation to keep themselves busy.

(e) **Field Level Government and Other Functionaries** : It might be possible to involve functionaries such as the village health worker, gram sevika, bal-sevika, VLW, functionaries of Cooperative Societies and Village Panchayats etc.

(f) **Voluntary Social Workers** : The energies of such persons are willing to make their contribution to community development should be tapped and special arrangements made for their involvement.

The Implementation Agencies :

The Government will naturally have to gear up to shoulder its responsibility in NAEP. In the beginning effort should be concentrated in compact areas. Every effort must be made to involve other Ministries and departments with a view to sharing the responsibility for organisation of adult education programmes. The other Ministries/departments would be encouraged to organise such programmes, with a component of functional literacy as well as to supplement the learning activity being undertaken through the educational authority. The implementation responsibility will rest squarely with the State Governments. The Central Government should be concerned not only with policy formulation and issue of general guidelines but should also oversee that the programmes are implemented by the State Governments in accordance with the Policy Statement.

The programme which gives importance to flexibility and diversity in organisation as well as its content can be best implemented through voluntary agencies. At present the involvement of voluntary agencies is somewhat limited and systematic attempts shall have to be made (a) to involve all voluntary agencies working at present in the

field of adult education or having the potentiality to do so, and (b) to create circumstances for emergence of new agencies, particularly in areas where such agencies are few. It is also necessary to recognise the partnership role of voluntary agencies and it would be desirable to consult them in decision making at all levels, particularly in matters which might affect the work of those agencies, as well as the procedures for making grant shall have to be reviewed.

The employers, whether in private sector or public, must play an important role in the spread of adult education among their employees. It might be made obligatory for all employers.

The local bodies, such as municipalities and panchayati raj institutions, which have been playing an important role in the field of formal as well as social education, should be expected to participate in the task of implementation of NAEP.

Planning, Administration and Supervision :

Central Government : The Directorate of Adult Education in Government of India, will have to substantially enlarge its activities.

State Level : Each State Government would be advised to examine the need for a separate division to deal with adult education in the Education Department of the State Secretariat.

District and Block Level : The districts selected for the programme may have to an additional District Education Officer with necessary supporting staff. Similar set-up may have to be laid on adequacy of staff for each project, for administration and supervision, as well as for providing the necessary technical support.

Voluntary Agencies : Necessary support shall have to be provided to national and state level voluntary

agencies, State Resource Centres etc. to set up necessary machinery to enable them to make their contribution to NAEP.

Training programmes of varying varieties for professional development shall also have to be organised by Government, universities and voluntary agencies. In addition to training, it would also be necessary to examine the pay structure of the professional workers involved in adult education programme.

Financing the NAEP :

It is necessary to devise an arrangement under which funds earmarked for adult education cannot be so diverted. At the same time, it has to be fully appreciated that the responsibility for planning and implementation of the programme in a state must rest with the State Government, with the Central Government being assigned the responsibility for wider involvement of voluntary agencies, try-out of innovative programmes.

It would be safe to assume that the per learner cost could not be less than Rs. 70/-. Adequate funds on the basis of these calculations will have to be provided.

In addition to the expenditure involved in organisation of adult education programmes, provision shall have to be made, from the very beginning, for follow up and continuing education of neo-literates and persons. It would be reasonable to provide an amount of approximately 20 per cent of the total expenditure for follow up and continuing education for neo-literates and persons who have acquired literacy in the formal system of education.

(g) 1986 Onwards

11.6 National Policy on Education 1985

In this policy the emphasis has been on Adult Education. The programme of action laid down that

The Present Situation :

1. Spread of literacy has been an important programme since independence. Between 1951 and 1981 the percentage of literacy improved from 16.67 per cent to 36.27 per cent. However, in absolute numbers illiterate persons have increased during this period from 300 million to 437 million. Women comprise 57 per cent of the illiterates population and the situation among SC ST is particularly bad. Adult literacy received special attention during the last ten years—administrative and technical resource structure have been established and voluntary agencies involved in large numbers. However, the situation is characterised by low levels of literacy among persons treated as literate, widespread disuse of literacy skills, often resulting in relapse to illiteracy, scanty opportunities for continuing education and access to information. Science, technology and modern research have not been applied to literacy programmes and the youth, workers and the masses have remained uninvolved in it.

The Policy, Targets and Implications for Strategy :

2. NPE envisages that adult education would be a means for reducing economic, social and gender disparities. The principal aim of the new National Programme of Adult Education (NPAE) is to provide education including literacy, to the population in 15-35 age-group, which numbers about 100 million. NPAE would, therefore, inter alia, lay emphasis on skill development, and creation of awareness among the learners of the national goals, of development programmes, and for liberation from oppression. NPAE would be a phased time-bound programme, covering approximately 40 million by 1990 and another 60 million by 1995.

3. The main features of the implementation strategy will consist of the following :

- (a) Reorganisation of the existing programmes, to introduce flexibility and other measures for greater effectiveness.
- (b) Application of science and technology, and pedagogical research for improving the pace and environment of learning.
- (c) Establishing linkage between adult education and the developmental programmes.
- (d) Launching of mass functional literacy programme.
- (e) A multi dimensional programme of continuing education as the instrument for moving towards a learning society.
- (f) Creation of dyanmic management structure to cope with the targets envisaged.
- (g) A distinct slant in favour of women's equality, and taking of all measures in pursuance of this resolve.

Creation of Environment—A Pre Requisite for Eradication :

4. It is proposed to correct the imbalance by taking the following measures :

- (a) Active cooperation will be sought from political parties and the mass organisations of workers, peasants, women, youth and students.
- (b) Effective support will be provided through the mass media.
- (c) All development departments will be expected to utilise the adult education programme for the furtherance of their objectives.
- (d) The entire educational system will commit itself to this cause.
- (e) The district, tehsil and thana level administrative

machinery will be involved in NPAE to ensure their support for awareness-oriented adult education programmes.

Reorganisation of the Existing Programmes :

5. The main programme is the Rural Functional Literacy Projects (RFLP). In terms of the financial pattern and programme parameters, RFLP has influenced the State Adult Education Programmes (SAEP) as well as the programme of assistance to voluntary agencies. RFLP and SAEPs will be strengthened by (i) introduction of flexibility in the project structure ; (ii) greater use of spoken language of the learners (including the languages spoken by the tribal people) ; (iii) emphasis on training of functionaries ; (iv) decentralisation of the supervisory system ; (v) increase in the number of women instructors, even by adjusting the minimum qualifications and making arrangements for their continuing education; (vi) continuity regarding duration of the projects; (vii) application of science and technology for improvement in the environment of the learning centres, greater use of educational technology and research in pedagogy of literacy instructions; and (viii) a direct and continuing linkage between initial literacy instruction and post-literacy and continuing education.

6. The involvement of voluntary agencies and social activist groups will be enhanced by creating a relationship of partnership improving the system of initial selection, assurance regarding continuity, and simplification of procedures.

7. The existing programmes of workers education would be reviewed and brought in conformity with the policy directives. The Shramik Vidyapeeths will pay greater attention to rural workers, women workers, child labour and to increase in workers' productivity. The Central Board of Workers Education will take up effective prog-

rammes of literacy and workers education. There will be much greater involvement of trade unions, and they will be encouraged to take up larger programmes.

Adult Education and Development Programmes

8. It is of importance that effective linkage is established between adult education and development programmes in the following ways :

- (a) Special literacy primers and other reading material will be developed for the beneficiaries of IRDP and NREP to enable them to understand their rights and responsibilities.
- (b) Efficacy of ICDS has suffered due to discontinuance of the component of functional literacy of adult women. This programme will be restarted in the form of Functional Literacy of Women (FLOW) which would be an integrated part of ICDS.
- (c) The various programmes for development of SC/ST and other educationally backward sections will include a component of literacy and adult education wherever possible.
- (d) Programmes of labour welfare will give special attention to literacy and adult education. Employers will be required, if necessary by law, to organise literacy and skill development programmes for all their employees. Welfare Funds for various categories of workers will be used for running literacy and adult education programmes and due attention given in the various schemes for unorganised workers.
- (e) Literacy and adult education will also form an important part of the various programmes of women's development.
- (f) Starting with 50 NYKs in 1986-87, all Nehru Yuva

Kendras will take up in their district one project of 100 functional literacy centres in one block each.

Mass Functional Literacy Programme

9. NPE places complete faith in country's youth, teachers and workers and peasants. In conformity with that spirit, it is intended to give a marked slant to NPAE to a mass programme in the following way :

- (a) Literacy work would be taken up by a large number of students as "study service", which would be reflected in the students' final result sheets.
- (b) Substantial institutional incentive will be provided to universities, colleges, higher secondary/secondary schools for eradication of illiteracy in a well-defined area.
- (c) Trade unions, Panchayati Raj agencies and other representative organisations of people will be encouraged to voluntarily take up functional literacy programme for which literacy kits and some organisational expenses would be provided to them.
- (d) Encouraging individuals to look upon literacy work as a personal commitment and voluntary service, particularly by women among women, and involvement of voluntary agencies for this purpose.

Continuing Education

10. Continuing education includes post-literacy for neo-literates and school drop-outs for retention of literacy skills, continuation of learning beyond elementary literacy and application of this learning for improving their living conditions.

1. Establishment of Jana Shikshan Nilayams (JSN) for clusters of villages, the total population of which may be about 5000. JSNs to be integrated with the programmes of adult education and non-formal education and will provide facilities of library, reading room, Charcha Mandal, cultural activities and may also include a community TV set.
2. Employers, trade-unions and the concerned agencies of Government will organise systematic programmes of workers' education for improving their educational standards and upgradation of their skills with a view to improving productivity, worker's wages and their well-being.
3. All post-secondary education institutions—including universities, colleges and polytechnics—will be expected to give to extension work the same importance as they do to instruction i.e. mass education as well as continuing education for the work force and the professionals.
4. Libraries and reading rooms in educational institutions will be opened to the public in the evenings and necessary additional grants provided to them for this purpose. Voluntary efforts for establishment of reading rooms and libraries will be encouraged.
5. As spelt out in the section of media and education technology, radio, TV and films will be encouraged to subserve the objectives of education and recreation.
6. Non-formal programmes of vocational and technical education, based on the needs and interests of learners, will be organised on a large scale, ensuring that women participate in such programmes with men. The existing arrangements provided under schemes such as TRYSEM, Krishi Vigyan Kendras., Farmers' Training Centres, etc. would be supplemented by part-

time courses organised by educational and technical institutions.

Technical Resource System

11. The emphasis would be on decentralisation and employment of educational technology for quality improvement.

- (a) Greatest attention would be paid to preparation of good learning materials, teachers' guides, and to training.
- (b) The work of each State Resource Centre will be reviewed and more provision will be made for improvement of infra-structure and staff in SRCs.
- (c) District Resource Units (DRU) for adult education and non-formal education will form an integral part of DIETs. The DRUs will take responsibility for initial and continuing education of the field level functionaries.

Technology Mission of Eradication of Illiteracy :

12. Eradication of Illiteracy will be launched as a Technical and Societal Mission. In pursuance of the Mission, effort will be made to (i) improve the physical environment, power supply and the illumination etc. of adult education centres; (ii) facilitate and expedite preparation, printing, distribution of topical and relevant learning materials and learning aids on a decentralised basis; (iii) enrich the process of learning with audio-visual materials by enlarging the range of television and radio broadcasts and also by developing cheaper and sturdier equipment; (iv) reduce the time-lag between pedagogic research and the assimilation of its results in the teaching-learning processes; and (v) create inter-active environment between the electronic teaching devices and the learners.

Management of NPAE :

13. For this purpose the main considerations in determining the management system will be (i) the guiding considerations for planning and management spelt out in NPE; (ii) need for the centralised policy framework and direction with decentralisation of the planning and implementation process and functional autonomy; (iii) establishment of effective linkage between development agencies and NPAE; (iv) securing the commitment of political parties, mass organisations, educational institutions, voluntary agencies, etc.; (v) delineation of responsibility to enforce operational accountability; and (vi) ensuring the effective participation of functionaries of NPAE, the intended beneficiaries and the community in planning and day-to day implementation of the programme at the grassroots level.

14. **Project Approach :** The critical level in the management of NPAE is the project level. The management functions at the project level would comprise (i) planning of the programme; (ii) selection and training of supervisors and instructors; (iii) ensuring coordination and cooperation with the various developmental agencies and mass organisations; (iv) provision of supplies and materials; (v) ensuring that the programme is run in accordance with the overall objectives; and (vi) effective evaluation and monitoring.

15. The operational unit of adult education would continue to be the Adult Education Centre (AEC) organised at the village or mohalla level. The AEC organiser is envisaged as an activist worker who would run the AEC for organisation of programme. A cluster of 8 to 10 AECs will be overseen by a supervisor who will be selected from the local area, preferably an experienced and successful AEC organiser. The supervisor will organic post-literacy

and continuing education activities through a Jana Shikshan Nilayam.

16. All existing Adult Education Projects will be reviewed and reorganised.

17. **Planning at the district level** : Detailed planning at the district level for illiteracy eradication would be the responsibility of the District Boards of Education (DBE). Technical assistance would be provided to DBE by the District Resource Units. DEB will undertake :

- spatial allocation of responsibility among the various agencies implementing the programme;
- provide overall guidance to DRUs;
- coordinate the Mass Programme referred to at paragraph 9;
- guide and coordinate the adult education programmes undertaken by the employers, etc.

18. **The State and the National Level** : At the State as well as National level there will be a commission headed by the Chief Minister and the Minister of Human Resource Development, respectively. Its membership would include senior level political leaders of the main national parties. These will be autonomous bodies and will have responsibility for planning and implementation of NPAE. Their responsibilities will include :

- planning and budgeting for the programme, creation of multi-level structures for development of materials and for training of functionaries; evaluation, monitoring, concurrent review and research; continuing education programmes; provision of media support; and linkages with other development departments.

The day-to-day financial and administrative powers necessary for implementation of this Programme of Action will be the responsibility of the Executive Committees of

the State as well as the National Commissions. The State Executive Committee would be headed by the Chief Secretary, Education Secretary, and the national committee by the Union Education Secretary.

19. **Evaluation and MIS :** Maximum attention will be paid to the subject of learner evaluation—the purpose being to ensure that all adult learners attain a level in literacy and numeracy which would enable them to continue learning in a self-reliant manner. Learner evaluation will also concern itself with the other components of NPAE—skill development, awareness, etc. A system of programme evaluation will be built into NPAE to ensure that all AEC organisers, supervisors and management personnel concurrently review, in a participatory manner, the progress of the programme. Institutions of higher education and of social science research will be associated with external evaluation—of the process, the quality of the programme, quantitative achievements and the management system. Necessary correctives will be introduced from time to time on the basis of those evaluations.

20. A Management Information System will be instituted to ensure periodic flow of information needed for improvement in management. Measures will also be taken towards careful analysis of the information data received and feedback.

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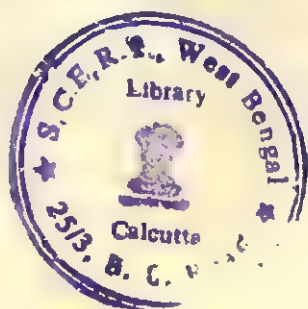
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